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UNIVERSITY IN THE CONTEXT OF NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT:
A CASE-STUDY OF MALAYSIAN ACADEMICS' PERCEPTIONS

by ©

Lay Kim THONG

A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

International/Intercultural Education

Department of Educational Policy Studies

Edmonton, Alberta

Fall 1995

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of Canada

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DEDICATION

Dedicated to Albert, Al & Jay, without whose love and moral support, this thesis could not have been completed.

ABSTRACT

This case study examines the university's role as perceived by academic staff of two Malaysian universities, namely Universiti Malaya (UM) and Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). The university's role has been conceptualized in terms of its goal emphases and its relationship to the external agencies and academic staff.

This study examines the role of universities in Malaysia that aspires to be an industrialized nation by the year 2020. Its fast-growing economy and current boom looks set to continue unabated into the 21st century. Within this context, the role of the university is being reconstructed. The aim of this study is to describe and analyze the emerging trend.

The conflict perspective shaped the framework of the study. It takes cognizance of the conflicts and tensions that exist among different interest groups who have a stake in university education. Recognizing this underscores the importance of the role of human agency in educational reform. However, an eclectic approach was used in the analysis.

Six research questions were developed on university goal emphases and its relationship to government and private sector. Data were obtained from 159 academics of UM and UKM through a survey questionnaire and personal interviews with 26 of them. A part of the survey questionnaire was modified

from the Institutional Goals Inventory (IGI).

The findings indicate that the emerging university model is a utilitarian one emphasizing national needs and vocational preparation. The respondents seem to support university-industry linkage. However, they prefer more emphasis on intellectual orientation, which is argued as being necessary to sustain long-term development. Hence, a university model that combines both the "ivory tower" model with utilitarianism is preferred.

The government influence on universities is perceived as imposing. A higher degree of relative autonomy is preferred. The academics perceive that climate is currently not accorded due importance and that their academic role has become less effective.

The findings also provide insights into several goal-related issues pertaining to the accountability-autonomy debate, massification of higher education and the prevalent market ideology in Malaysia.

Intellectualism is the distinctive feature of a university that must be retained in the construction of the 21st century university vis-a-vis national development. The development of a university that is rooted in both pragmatism and intellectual idealism, which makes higher education, in fact "higher", is the challenge.

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CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Introduction

Throughout much of the world today, universities are encountering mounting pressures to undergo fundamental reform. In response to this relentless pressure, many universities are reorganizing their organizational structures and revamping their programs with a view to achieving greater cost efficiency and to enhancing their relevance in relation to national economic needs. While they strive to better serve the changing needs of national development, however, they also are committed to preserving traditional academic goals. Despite this attempt to strike a balance, there is real concern that the changes pose a serious threat to long-standing educational ideals held especially by members of the university community.

That today's university is facing strong external pressures to reform is vividly illustrated in much recent post-war literature on higher education. This literature also reveals that the institution has been in what is virtually a continuous state of crisis within a rapidly changing society. Drawing from ten publications concerning the crisis of higher education in Britain and twenty pertaining to the United States since the Second World War, Tight (1994) points out that, though the nature of the crisis has varied over time, it "has been associated with the university's moral purpose, financial problems and economic relevance, as well as with student rebellions, academic freedom, industrial links and government interference" (p. 365).

The press for change in higher education has not been confined to the West. In developing countries, external pressures on universities have been mounting since the decolonization period that followed the Second World War. This is evident in the case of universities in former colonies such as Malaysia, Singapore and Indonesia. These universities, which were originally patterned on western models, began to adapt the university model to meet local needs and realities as a response to pressures of nation-building (Altbach, 1989). Thus, as Hallak (1983) points out, the great changes affecting higher education are not confined to industrialized countries. On the contrary, the pressures are sometimes greater in the less developed nations. Hence, the university crisis is, in fact, international.

Some of the major issues pertaining to this crisis within developing countries are dealt with in a number of articles. Among these issues are the following: whether universities in the Third World are status symbols or instruments for national development (van Den Bor, 1991); the role of university in national integration (Akpan, 1990); expansion of opportunity and social equality through higher education (Shaw, 1993); cost and finance of higher education (Tilak, 1993); integrating the local culture and tradition within the modern university (Wang, 1992, Sherman, 1990); organizational effectiveness (Escala et al., 1988); role of government in higher education (Unesco, 1988); relationship between higher education and employment (Sanyal, 1987); universities as producers of the much needed human capital (Singh, 1991); and new directions and new expectations in institutional research and development (Strydom, 1986). The recent World Bank study (1994), which focuses on higher education in the developing countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America, indicates that the crisis includes problems of rapid enrollment expansion and the related deterioration in quality, coupled with relentless fiscal pressures and inefficiency as well as equity in higher education (Wrinkler, 1990). The crisis calls for "a redefinition of the role of the state in higher education, with emphasis on institutional autonomy and accountability; and an emphasis on the importance of policies explicitly designed to give priority to quality and equity objectives" (World Bank, 1994, p. viii). Essentially the literature cited here addresses the major problems faced by universities in developing countries in their role in meeting pressing national needs relating particularly to economic and social development.

The quest to resolve this crisis has led to serious rethinking about the relationship of the university to society. In particular, alternative visions of the university began to surface in North America when the liberal vision of university, which in the 1950s and 1960s advocated continuous expansion, began to be discredited as a guide for university development (Newson & Buchbinder, 1988). This vision of higher education, based on the Keynesian formula (which advocated wide accessibility, maximum diversity and choice of program options and an emphasis on the liberal arts, interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary studies, part-time education, and recruitment of students of diverse ethnic backgrounds and age groups and both sexes) was affordable during the period of economic expansion. However, the current period of economic contraction in North America is forcing policy-makers and academics to think about the role of the university in other terms. Universities are under pressure to be more efficient and more accountable in terms of their economic role. This emphasis on efficiency and accountability that is being forced upon the university community has given rise to significant struggles over priorities, resulting in university politics becoming more complex and conflictual (Newson and Buchbinder, 1988).

Instead of nostalgic glances backward to what it once was, the university needs to take a rigorous look at the reality of the world in which it finds itself today. In other words, it needs to reformulate its own goals in the light of contemporary social, political and economic constraints if it hopes to regain its stability and its own sense of direction. Without its own vision that could provide a framework for directing its own goals, the university is likely to succumb to the external pressures.

New literature is emerging to address the current challenge in higher education. The focus of this recent work is primarily on conceptualizing the future university for the 21st century. This literature takes a critical look at contemporary universities in the U.S (Fincher, 1993), in Britain (Scott, 1993), in Europe (Brademas, 1992) and in the developing countries (Saha, 1991, Wang, 1992), reviewing their distinctive features as well as discussing the challenges they all face in the 21st century. These discussions put forward conceptions of possibilities and actualities that exist for the universities. In particular, they present visions of the future university that can serve future purposes and needs. "The idea of a university for 'tomorrow's future' implies that the university would be a different kind of institution but it would be recognizable as a university" (Fincher, 1993, p. 44). Scott (1993) concludes that:

> How to conjure integrity out of pluralism remains higher education's most urgent task at the end of the 20th century. Or, better still, how to redescribe notions of excellence, referenced in the past, in terms of an integrity that is future-oriented, and how to redefine a threatening confusion as a more hopeful pluralism. The idea of the university in the 21st century, therefore, is not redundant rhetoric; its definition is central to the proper organization of higher education. But, precisely for this reason, it must be rooted in the institutional constraints that shape and intellectual imperatives that drive the modern university. (p. 23).

Wang (1992), who critically analyses the Asian universities in transition and speculates on what the transition might tell about their future, points out that:

> The problem, of course, may not be one of finding new answers but of finding new ways of putting into place the great wisdoms the world already has; in short, how to change ourselves and our institutions (including our universities) for a new age of transitions without losing our sense of humanity or our sense of community. And this brings me back to the earlier debates about universities and the great traditions.
>
> Most universities have failed, not because they have paid too much attention to tradition, to philosophy, history, literature and the fine arts, as many critics claim, nor because they have given them too little attention. Where they have failed most notably has been their inability to provide this area of their work with the vitality to cope with the conditions of rapid change. The great traditions were great because they were widely, if not universally, recognized as relevant to the social and psychological health of communities. ... If universities fail to project a vision of ourselves as deeply thoughtful and caring men and women in the changing future community, they will fail to convince the community of their value as institutions that not only enrich the community but also enhance our humanity. They will then be truly in danger of only being universities in name but no better than higher training schools in fact. (p. 26-27)

While much has been written about the accountability of universities and their contribution to economic growth in the context of national development, especially in developing countries (Saha, 1991, Singh, 1991), the literature also concerns itself with the issue of the international dimension of university education. The internationalization of learning which advocates "universal-university world" (Kerr, 1990, p. 8) and "the universalization of learning" has long been a defining characteristic of universities. Over time, with the intensification of the interest of independent nation states, the conscious use of universities for national purposes has become more important. Kerr (1990) describes this transition as one of "dual identity" that is "poised between a mythical academic Heaven and a sometime actual earthly Hell" (p. 5). The dilemma arises out of the contradiction that, while institutions of higher learning are inherently international and devoted to universal learning, they are in fact situated in a world of nation states that view their universities as instrumental to the promotion of national wealth. Higher education is therefore seen as an enterprise, or commodity (Neave, 1990) and as an economic investment (Little & Singh, 1992). The debate centering on the "ivory tower versus exchange and market" (Pricket, 1994) vis-a-vis the future development of the university is perhaps best described as follows:

> By the end of the century the question at the center of debate on universities (in Europe at least) would appear to concern the tug-of-war between market attraction and state governance in steering the future development of higher education. ...however, the most important question is how can the academic community preserve its autonomy, its identity, and its vitality amid the turbulent changes currently under way at both the national and international levels? (Kivinen and Rinne, 1991, p. 422)

They remark further that:

> As long ago as the beginning of the twentieth century, Weber (1974, pp. 20-1) pointed out that there was no more guarantee that the interests of science or the academic community would be met through the means of universities financed by the state... Weber was seriously concerned about the danger that the role of the state, as the vehicle of political power, could lead to the castration of academic freedom. (p. 422).

The university is so many things to so many people, it has many masters to serve besides itself. For example, the state and the business community are interested in the university's capacity for wealth creation, while the academic community is interested in the internationalization of learning. The problem for the university is how to address and balance what may be conflicting interests.

Statement of the Research Problem

Since its independence in 1957, the state in Malaysia has taken the central role in the national development process. Today, as a result of increasing economic globalization, the Malaysian economy is rapidly being integrated into the world capitalist economy. In this global context, Malaysia has achieved tremendous economic growth and is fast becoming a newly industrialized country (NIC). Its real gross domestic product (GDP) has grown at a rate exceeding 8% per annum since 1986 and this momentum is expected to be maintained by a growth rate of 8.9% in 1994 (Far Eastern Economic Review, April 27, 1995).

The recently formulated National Development Policy (NDP), which envisions a fully developed and industrialized Malaysia by the year 2020, is the new national development blueprint. The national development planners believe that human resources need to be fully developed if Malaysia is to succeed in its 30-year quest for an industrialized economy that can compete successfully in the international market. As this document states:

> Human resource development will be the major thrust in the Sixth Malaysia Plan as the achievement of socio-economic objectives depends on the availability of educated, skilled and trainable labour force. Towards this end, education and training programs will be further expanded and improved, not only to equip individual with the appropriate knowledge and skills but also to produce responsible citizens

> with strong moral and ethical values. In addition, such programs will help to develop a technically competent labour force that will enhance the competitiveness of the Malaysian economy.
>
> High priority is given to education and training as it contributes significantly to the objectives of the National Development Policy (NDP)... (Sixth Malaysia Plan:1991-95, p. 157)

Within this context, higher education in Malaysia is being "pushed" to produce the required technical and scientific manpower and knowledge for national economic development.

In Malaysia, the use of universities for national development can be said to have begun with the indigenization process of the Malaysian universities which started in 1970 and continues to be an important part of the national development process. It was then realized that the adopted western university models were poorly suited for the national development priorities of Malaysia. As most Malaysian universities are state-funded, they are expected to contribute to the state's functions of ensuring capital accumulation and establishing legitimacy through the strategies which are usually indicated in the national development plans. To fulfill these expectations, universities in Malaysia are undergoing fundamental change.

It is possible to identify two processes at work in the restructuring of the university in Malaysia, involving two separate state agencies, namely the bureaucrats and the academia. On one hand, the academia is trying to redefine the purpose of university education in response to external (i.e. state) pressures without sacrificing the educational ideals that these members of the academic community cherish so dearly. At the same time, national development planners and state bureaucrats who control budgets are exerting pressure on Malaysian universities to more systematically incorporate the needs of industry in the interests of furthering the new national goals. The development of a university model appropriate to this shift in emphasis has led to a perpetual battle between the academia and the state bureaucrats, one that hinges on the power-relationship between the two.

The aim of this study is to find out how the Malaysian universities are adapting to these current external pressures and to describe the model of university that is emerging, as perceived by academics. What do the Malaysian academics see as the role that is emerging for the university in the face of external pressures and a changing socio-economic and political landscape as the state launches an industrialization agenda appropriate to the 21st century? How well does this perceived role correspond to the "ideal" university role? What is the nature of the relationship between the university and the external agencies such as the government and the private sector? What are the challenges confronting the academics and the universities in Malaysia? These questions clearly pertain to institutional changes that are resulting from attempts by powerful external actors in Malaysia to reformulate the relationship between the university, the state and the economy.

These questions have also a personal significance for me by virtue of my own experience as an academic in a state-funded university in Malaysia. My interest stems from a concern to better understand the dynamic interaction between universities and society in contemporary Malaysia in order to better comprehend my own emerging role as an academic. To reiterate, the aim of the study is to investigate the perceptions of Malaysian academics regarding the role of universities in development and the challenges that confront these institutions as the country becomes highly industrialized.

Recent Studies on Higher Education in Malaysia

Some recent studies that have been conducted on higher education in Malaysia relate to aspects including curriculum planning of special education programs at the university (Salleh, 1988), factors related to the completion of off-campus education (Abdul-Rahman, 1994), and ethical standards among graduate business students (Wafa, 1989). Other studies focus on students' achievement and academic performance in foreign-affiliated university programs

(Schmidt, 1992; Sarudin, 1994), an evaluation of an internationally-affiliated undergraduate program (Bareikis, 1988), the relevance of foreign university education to the home countries (Sadat-Hossieny, 1989), including developing a model for organization, administration and programs of community colleges in Malaysia (Gaban, 1992). More closely related to this study are studies on the preferential policy in higher education (Kassim, 1990), the use of higher education as an intervention strategy in economic development of a plural society (Abu Shah, 1987), perceptions of faculty and department heads on leadership behavior in higher education (Mohamed, 1989), identification of technical education and training needs in Malaysia (Sakamoto, 1988), and institutional evaluation of universities in Malaysia (Ashari, 1987).

An older study worth mentioning as it has a rather similar title to this study - "The roles of the universities in the national development of Malaysia as perceived by selected government officials, university administrators and faculty members" (Sidin, 1980) - ascertains the extent to which similarities and differences existed between the perceptions of the three groups as to what should be the roles of the universities in Malaysia in meeting the education and training objectives of the Third Malaysia Plan. The three groups were found to agree or strongly agree more often than they disagreed with the various roles suggested for universities in meeting the objectives in the Third Malaysia Plan. And statistically there were no significant differences in their perceptions on those suggested roles. In constrast, rather than merely examining the suggested university roles vis-a-vis the national development plans of Malaysia, this study examines the university role in a broader sense. In this study, the universities are seen as dynamic social institutions interacting with the larger social systems in which they are located. Additionally, this study focuses on the perceptions of only the academics and compares the discrepancy between their perceptions of the current goal emphases of the university and the preferred emphases.

Significance of the Study

The study will generate information that adds to existing knowledge in the field of higher education in general, and in particular, to comparative studies in higher education, since it is a case study about the role of universities in a fast developing country in Asia at the close of the 20th century. Higher education was hardly a field of scholarly studies before the 1950s; but since the late 1960s, it has become a rapidly growing field of research focusing on a comparative orientation to a large extent (Husen, 1991). Husen further points out that the survey and bibliography by Altbach and Kelly (1985) contains 6901 entries, most of which were from 1970s and early 1980s.

Secondly, this study is of particular importance to academics in Malaysia. Clark (1983) points out that, ironically, scholars do not have the tradition of seriously analyzing the field of their daily activities. Many Malaysian academics take for granted the new trends and feel that little can be done to check them, especially when the universities are becoming highly regulated by the government. Since decision-making in the university is restricted to a handful of academic administrators and government bureaucrats, the academics find it futile to debate over university role and goals. (I speak of this from my personal experience as a Malaysian academic.) Since the aim of the study is to examine the role of Malaysian universities from the perspective of academics, it will prod them to voice their perceptions on this topic and hence encourage them to think about their roles in university development. Such an awareness will, it is hoped, help them to articulate their potential roles in directing the future development of their universities.

Thirdly, the study is important because it focuses on a contemporary issue of vital significance to Malaysia in as much as universities there are deemed by the state to have an important role in the national quest to become an industrially developed nation by the year 2020. Hopefully, the findings of the study will reveal insights into the perceptions of academics which can serve as valuable information for the educational planners. Since academics are critical players in ensuring the effective implementation of educational programs, their views must be taken into account in the process of educational planning.

Research Questions

The following six questions were developed for the study to solicit the perceptions of academics working in two universities in Malaysia, namely *Universiti Malaya* (UM) and *Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia* (UKM):

1. What goals do academic staff of UM and UKM perceive to be currently emphasized by their universities?

2. What is their preferred emphasis in university goals?

3. What is the extent of discrepancy between the current and preferred emphases on university goals?

4. How do the academics perceive the relationship of the university to the government and private sector?

5. How do the academics view their professional autonomy?

6. What are the major concerns and challenges for the academics, and for the Malaysian universities?

In sum, the questions were developed to seek the perceptions of academics regarding the university role which, in this study, has been conceptualized in terms of university goal priorities and its institutional relationship to the government and private sector. The related issues, problems and challenges faced by academics and their universities are also examined in the study.

General Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into seven chapters. The first chapter introduces the research problem by providing an overview of the study and its significance. It also presents the six research questions that guide the study. These research questions were developed from a review of relevant literature which provides a theoretical perspective and sociological insights into the research problem.

The main elements of the theoretical perspective of the study are presented in Chapter 2. This theoretical perspective is drawn from a review of literature on the concepts and theories of development and education; the relationship between development and education; the role of human agency and ideology in educational development; and the major theories of the state vis-a-vis the role of the state in education and development. These are important since the study is about the relationship between education, development and the state.

The literature review continues in Chapter 3 to provide the background and sociological insights into the research problem. Since the focus of the study is on the contemporary role of the university in Malaysia, the discussion in this chapter begins with an overview of the origin and development of universities in general to situate the research problem. It also discusses the challenges that confront universities in different parts of the world. Major competing university models and visions, and the issues and debates related to the current university crisis vis-a-vis the contemporary university role, are discussed to situate the Malaysian problem.

A more detailed account of the Malaysian situation is presented in Chapter 4 which provides the context of this case-study. The chapter describes the political, social and economic landscape of Malaysia, including a brief history of its formation. This helps one to understand the dynamics and processes influencing the role of the university there. Understanding these internal dynamics and process at play is crucial to comprehending the research problem of the study which aims at examining the universities as social institutions interacting within the larger and broader social system characterized by different classes, ethnicity, etc.

Chapter 5 discusses the research methodology that is used in the study and describes the research process. The related methodological issues and problems are also dealt with in the chapter. Chapter 6 reports the findings of the study. The chapter is organized to answer each of the six research questions that are set out in Chapter 1. Chapter 7 discusses the implications of the research findings. This last chapter is organized in two parts, namely university goals and university relations - the two main aspects that define the university role in this study. The concluding chapter also identifies the problems and challenges ahead for the university and the academics as Malaysia embarks on an intensive industrialization development agenda as it enters the 21st century. The thesis concludes with suggestions of possible research that can be conducted to further explore the research problem of the contemporary university role for an increased understanding into this area.

CHAPTER 2

THE THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

A review of literature relevant to the research problem of the study is necessary to develop sharper and more insightful questions about the topic (Yin, 1989). The literature review of this study is presented in this chapter. It focuses on the discussion of literature that provides the elements for a theoretical perspective for studying the research problem.

Elements for a Theoretical Perspective

In undertaking a research study, it is important first to gain a sensitivity to the research problem in order to develop a theoretical perspective for constructing research questions that serve the focus of inquiry. For this purpose, a review of literature that was intuitively considered to be pertinent to the research problem of the study was undertaken. Guiding the selection of relevant literature is the underlying assumption that the university is a dynamic social organization and its role is a product of complex mediation between structural constraints and the social actors within a particular context at a particular developmental phase. "A study of the university is inevitably a study of change and resistance to change, of the structures and forms that facilitate each, of the interaction of the institution and society in ways that facilitate or that inhibit new development" (Ross, 1976, p. 4).

The broad theoretical perspective that is introduced here, arose from the literature review of concepts and theories that have been identified as being relevant to the research problem for the study. These include the concept and theories of development, the role of education in development, the role of the state in development and education, theories of the state, the mediating role of human agency in education, and university roles and goals.

Concept and Theories of Development

Underlying the research topic is the concept of development. Although the notion of development has been widely recognized as multi-dimensional (political, economic and social), most theories of development inspired by the structural-functionalist paradigm focus only on the economic dimension. In contrast, in addition to focusing on economic transformation, the radical neo-Marxist view includes a consideration of the issues of social justice and equality, thus resulting in a broader conception of development. In other words, the neo-Marxist conception of development sees economic and social transformation as dynamically and dialectically linked.

Despite its narrow focus, the structural-functionalist-inspired view of development prevails in most third world countries. Although this focus is a highly reductionist conception of development, this is the view which seems to guide the state-dominated development discourse in Malaysia.

Development and Education

Supported by academic research, education came to be viewed almost without question as the crucial agent for rapid national development (Fagerlind and Saha, 1989). During the late 1950s and early 1960s, modernization and the human capital theories (which are rooted in the structural-functionalist paradigm) dominated the thinking of national development planners. The appeal of these particular development theories lies in the presumed economic return on investment in education, both for the society, and for the individual (Fagerlind and Saha, 1989; Blaug, 1976; Karabel and Halsey, 1977), and in addition to their being consistent with the prevailing ideologies of democracy and liberal progressivism in western societies. Human capital theorists (Schultz 1961; Denison 1962; and Becker 1964) assume that formal education is highly instrumental and even necessary to improve the productive capacity of a nation because it provides the knowledge and skills that can expand the stock of human capital which contributes to the economic productivity of a nation.

From the perspective of human capital theory, universities are viewed as one of the most significant resources that can influence economic development. This is because, in addition to providing education and training, universities also conduct research that generates new technologies, new products and new services. Moreover, they share the knowledge resources and expertise needed to transfer innovations between sectors, as well as assist business to maintain a competitive edge.

As a result of widespread subscription to human capital theory, state policy-makers, business and community groups look to universities for assistance in facing the current economic problems. In spite of the various criticisms that have been levelled at human capital theory's theoretical assumptions and methodological difficulties, educational planning and development strategies were dominated by this theory until the 1980s (Fagerlind and Saha, 1989). In Malaysia, the various five-year development plans since the beginning in 1965, suggest that her educational planning and development strategies have been dominated strongly by the structural-functionalist human capital theory.

The competing paradigm to structural-functionalism came from the neo-Marxist school. Neo-Marxists do not deny that education contributes to the production of skilled manpower and therefore to economic growth (Fagerlind and Saha, 1989). However they contend that this growth, in advanced capitalist societies, has served mainly the interests of those in power and has perpetuated the inequalities of the social system. They argue that the education system in capitalist societies produces a docile and compliant workforce (Bowles and Gintis, 1976) and provides the dominant classes with "cultural and material capital" which allow them to participate more fully than others in the social system and reap its rewards (Bourdieu, 1973). The neo-Marxists thus contend that such education contributes to social, political and economic inequalities in advanced capitalist societies. The notion of equality is, indeed the defining aspect of the neo-Marxist view of development. Hence, unlike the structural-functional perspective of the relationship between development and education, which focuses on the production of skills for economic growth, the neo-Marxist perspective is more concerned with the role of education in the development of values for the promotion of social justice and equality of opportunities for economic and political participation by all members of society.

Economy and Educational Development

Kwong (1979) points out the usefulness of the Marxist view of social change for analyzing the relationship between the economy and educational development as follows:

> It helps to situate the economy and education within the larger social framework and to recognize not only the importance of the economic structure in determining educational development, but also the specific social and historical context in which the interaction between economy and education takes place. The emphasis on conflict as an ever present reality in the social milieu sensitizes one to the contradictions that might exist between the economy and the various parts of the superstructure (p. 7).

Kwong further explains that while the relationship between the economy and education is a close one, it is not necessarily supportive at all times. Drawing from Althusser's and Carnoy's concept of the educational system as an ideological state apparatus, Kwong elaborates that the role of education is supportive in the reproduction of the economic structure when a particular mode of production is entrenched. "However in a period of transition which involves a fundamental change in the economic base and power relations, the relationship between the economy and education can be contradictory because of the resilience of the older structures.." (Kwong, 1979, p. 10). Hence on this view, the relationship between the economy and education is potentially both supportive and contradictory.

Kwong further points out that the Marxist view of the relationship between the economic substructure and the superstructure posits that the economy, while playing a determinant role in educational development, does not affect it in a mechanistic way. In other words, educational development is not a mechanical reaction to changing needs in the economic structure. On this view, moreover the economic structure exerts an influence on educational development usually only through the mediation of its agents. The role of agency, therefore, is an important factor in the development of educational policies.

Role of Human Agency and Ideology in Educational Reform

The agents that control the ideological state apparatus at both the decision-making and implementation levels are identified in the Marxist theories of Poulantzas and Miliband. In reference to these theories, Kwong (1979) explains that "the hegemonic group that controls the economic structure and the state apparatus, also dominates the educational system. It provides the guidelines for the policies and direction for educational development" (p. 15). But she criticizes Poulantzas' and Miliband's theories as underplaying the contradictions between the hegemonic group and the agents of the bureaucracy, thus giving the impression that policy goes unopposed at the implementation level. Donald (1981) also points out that the relationships between the formulation of policy and its actual implementation are not as straightforward as is sometimes assumed by some Marxists. Although the formulation of educational policies and the implementation are both activities of the state, they are usually carried out by different agents located in separate state institutions. Hence, in order to comprehend how these state institutions function, it is necessary to gain an understanding of the intricate workings of the knowledge-power complex relationship involving human agency.

As well, the outcome of educational development depends as much on the policies formulated as on the manner in which they are implemented (Kwong, 1979). The ideology and power relationships between and within the groups of human agents at the decision-making level and the implementation level thus have an important influence on the success or failure of the policies.

Influenced by the prevailing ideology, men make decisions that guide their actions. "While not discounting man's capacity for independent action and his ability to transform social existence, Marx holds that man's ideology or social consciousness is shaped by his social existence, and particularly by those activities related to production."

(Kwong, 1979, p. 16). In other words, the Marxist conception of ideology is that "the character of ideologies is largely determined by the economic arrangement of a society... in class societies such as capitalism, ideologies are distorted by class interest" (Abercrombie et al., 1984, p. 104). Man's ideology is not static but is constantly being challenged, shaped and reshaped by his perception of the changing social reality. The human agents are influenced by both their personal ideology and the hegemonic ideology which shape the way they perceive and interpret existing conditions.

The ideology of the hegemonic group provides the framework and guidelines by which the group assesses existing economic conditions and requirements which, in turn, determine educational priorities. While educational policies are generally formulated by the state in concert with the hegemonic class, the extent to which these policies are actually implemented is strongly influenced by the degree of commitment of the implementers to the hegemonic ideology.

That the state is not a monolithic power structure, not even in a totalitarian country like China, is illustrated by Kwong's analysis of educational change in China (1979). Her study found that when differences between the policy makers and the implementers were great, the result was a failure of the schools. This is because, when the implementers strongly disapprove of the intent behind the policies, "they reacted with a mechanical adherence only to the guidelines, meeting pressures from the authority with hasty implementation and apparent enthusiasm" (Kwong, 1979, p. 171). Therefore, when bureaucrats and professors have conflicting notions regarding what a university should be, this will affect the extent to which a particular university model is successfully implemented.

Different ideals become the rallying point for antagonistic classes, which Collins (1994) in quoting Bourdieu, calls it "symbolic violence" (p. 70). Collins argues that higher classes which are better organized and have the capacity to control the means of mental production, e.g., the media, printing press, etc., are usually able to exert ideological domination over other classes, in addition to their sheer economic and political domination. Intellectuals are specialists in the production of ideas too. But, because they have to make a living by fitting into the economic structure of the time, although "free in principle to formulate whatever ideas they can conceive, nevertheless [they] tend to create ideologies favoring the class that feeds them" (Collins, 1994, p. 67). Collins further argues that:

> when intellectuals have the choice among alternative means of support, their intellectual autonomy is enhanced, and they can formulate criticisms.... But this does not mean that ideas are simply free floating and autonomous; they

> always reflect the social and material circumstances of intellectuals... (p. 67).

The development of university education is shaped by human actors both inside and outside the institution, including the academic staff, university administrators, students, government bureaucrats, businesses and international agencies such as the World Bank. Marxists draw particular attention to the class differences of the social actors that shape their ideologies, their structural relationship to each other and to the state. Marxist theorists are convinced that the state is dominated by the capitalist class. The non-Marxists, for example the liberal pluralists, while also acknowledging the role of human agents in development, view their role differently since they assume modern democracies as being characterized by diverse leadership groups (MacGregor, 1992).

Hence the relationship between education and development is not as straightforward as is generally assumed by the structural functionalists. On the contrary, it is, in fact, highly complex. Its complexity is related to a number of questions: What kind of development is desired? What kind of education is more suitable for this development? Whose interests in the development process should prevail? Questions such as these pertain to the role of the state in the development process.

Role of the State in Development and Education

The importance of the role of the state in directing development through educational programs has been well recognized (Dale 1982, Carnoy 1982, Fagerlind and Saha, 1989). To quote Fagerlind and Saha, (1989):

> Whether one views the State from the common good or the Marxist perspective, it seems inevitable that the State is never neutral, irrespective of the type of economy or level of development. The goals of both education and development in any country are inherently political. (p. 282).

Important educational reforms always involve a process with economic, social, ideological or political implications for the distribution of power and of material resources. Educational reform involves, therefore, not only a fundamental change in the structure of the educational system but in the economic and social structure of a society.

Williamson (1979) points out that the problems of planning in education involve less the technical question of what and how changes are to be brought about than the political one of who shall benefit most from the changes which are implemented. The reality is that the decisions regarding the adoption of educational and development programs based on a particular development model reside in the hands of the state (Fagerlind and Saha, 1989). But

Wilkinson (1981), McCann (1981) and Kwong (1979) point out that state policy is not adequately explained as being "imposed" on education, for the state is not monolithic.

Dale (1982) found it surprising that the implications of state provision of education had been neglected by the earlier major approaches in the sociology of education, namely the structural-functionalist approach, the 'new' sociology of education and the political economy of education. These earlier approaches regard the state as "an effectively neutral means of delivery of intended outcomes decided elsewhere" (Dale, 1982, p. 127) and hence they are inadequate for understanding educational instability and change. Also, the "political scientists who have focused on education, confined their studies very much to education politics rather than the politics of education" (Dale, 1982, p. 128). Dale contends that it is through an analysis of the role of the state and its relationship to education that one can achieve an understanding of the assumptions, intentions and outcomes of the various strategies of educational change.

Much of the thinking regarding educational expansion in the developing countries has been derived from the experience of the industrialized nations of Europe, North America and Japan. Hughes (1994) concludes that these works (Bereday, 1973; Trow 1974 & 1976; and Clark, 1983) although they provide useful insights into the transformation of higher education from elite to mass systems, they tend to underemphasize the relationship between education and the state and overemphasize economic relationships.

Education and theories of the state based on the works of Lenin, Althusser, Gramsci and Poulantzas have been surveyed at length also by Carnoy (1982, 84, 85, 87). It can be said that these works have contributed to an increased understanding of the implications of state provision of education.

Education and Theories of the State

According to Carnoy (1983), any analysis of an educational system must be based on some theory about the purposes and functioning of the state. Such a theory of the state provides the basis for understanding the role of all institutions in a society and their interrelationships, including the role of education and its relation to the society at large (Carnoy, 1983).

Carnoy further explains that there are two basic views of the state's role. This first view, based on the "common good theory" of the state, assumes that the educational system provided by the democratic state serves the interest of the majority of the society's members efficiently and equally. This "common good theory" of the state is based on the structural functionalist perspective which assumes that the state acts in the best interests of the mass of people it governs. This is consistent with the structural-functionalist perspective's assumption that the social order is a natural one and that the purpose of the state is simply to maintain and regulate the natural order that already exists because there is consensus among members of society about their basic values.

Unlike the structural functionalists who assume that value consensus is natural, the second view inspired by the conflict tradition assumes that value and goal conflict is inevitable (Ragin, Maioni & Martin, 1994). Hence, the conflict theorists portray the capitalist state as an arena of conflict between social classes having opposing interests. Despite struggles among the classes, the dominant bourgeois class is able to dominate society as a whole. Through this domination, state institutions, such as schools, are organized to serve the particular interest of this dominant group. The conflict perspective of government thus rejects the conception of state power as being directed to the common good, the general interest, social justice, etc. (Carnoy, 1983). Instead, conflict theorists see the state as necessarily biased in favor of the dominant economic group. Inspired by Marx, they view the state as an apparatus for the exercise of power, not in the general interest, but in the interest of a particular group - the ruling class.

Recognizing this fundamental difference in how the state is conceptualized, helps one to interpret different views of the educational system. Those "common good' theorists who view public education as serving everyone's interest do not find it necessary, unlike the conflict theorists, to discuss the social class relations in the educational system and its possible function in reproducing those divisions to perpetuate the existing class power structure. There are, however, variations within both views, and these provide important insights into the functioning of the educational system. They also have important implications for educational theory and educational policies.

A noteworthy variation of the Marxist view of the state is found in Gramsci's concept of hegemony, the role of intellectuals (and education) in the superstructure and the development of counter-hegemony. Rather than focusing on the economic structure (relations in production), the Gramscian perspective focuses on the superstructure - the complex ideological and cultural relations, the spiritual and intellectual life and the political expression of those relations (Carnoy, 1983). Gramsci perceives the superstructure not only as a source of the dominant hegemony but also for the development of counter-hegemony. In other words, his contributions to the Marxist analysis of the state are the emphasis given to cultural and ideological relations in his analysis of the functions of the civil society and the raising of individuals' consciousness of their potential as agents of change. Individuals are perceived as agents of change rather than supporters of the structural relations that were determined by the historical material conditions. Gramsci's analysis of intellectuals has a direct bearing on his conception of education and the role that education plays in both hegemony and counter-hegemony.

Carnoy (1983), agrees with Gramsci in that it is important to develop intellectuals from the working class to create the counter-hegemony for potential social change. He indicates that change can be brought about through the exploitation of contradictory functions of the state and its apparatuses, e.g. education, (in order to dismantle the monopolistic capitalist system), and through consciousness-raising of teachers and students in understanding the nature of the system they serve so that they can take collective control of the learning process. Carnoy (1983) points out that Gramsci raises man's thought (consciousness) to a prominent place in the philosophy of "praxis". This philosophy is also expounded by Friere in his theory of "conscientization" and liberation. These theorists view education as a state apparatus that is the result of economic and social contradictions and is also the source of subsequent contradictions.

Functions of the state

The liberal democratic state has two important and sometimes contradictory functions, observes O'Connor (1973). These functions are to create conditions that foster capital accumulation and to strengthen and consolidate its legitimacy. Education, being a state apparatus, is used to carry out these state functions. Hughes (1994) points out that:

> Education is an ideal avenue for the purchase of legitimacy.
>
> As a result, the political investment in higher education is considerable. It follows that the greater the investment the more policitised educational decisions will be and the more intrusive politicians will be in the educational process. (1994, p. 200).

Hughes draws his conclusion from his analysis of the educational policies in Kenya and India. As in Kenya where the President serves as Chancellor to the university system, prominent and powerful politicians serve as Chancellors to Malaysian universities too. Like in India, Vice-Chancellors in Malaysia's universities are government-appointed and the policy decisions they make need government approval which is required even more in financial matters.

The state's functions of accumulation and legitimation are closely related to the existing political and economic structures that are in place in a society. Usually in a more liberal and democratic society, the state tends to pay greater attention to the legitimation function (O'Oconner, 1973). Additionally, Hughes (1994) contends that:

> In the weak State, a very different set of political goals and governing strategies tend to exist. In a context of political survival, the educational system can clearly be manipulated to support the political elite. Hence expansion [of higher education] can be seen as an outgrowth of the leadership of a weak State striving to maintain legitimacy. (p. 199)

Therefore Hughes concludes that the need for States and governments to be perceived as legitimate is a useful concept that provides the framework for understanding some of the seeming contradictions in post-secondary educational policy in the Third World, for example, why the expansion of higher education continues unabated, and even escalated, in the face of graduate unemployment.

In analyzing the relationship between education and the changing political and economic structures in any country, attention needs to be focused on the efforts of the state in carrying out the balancing act between accumulation and legitimation through developments in its educational system. As university education in Malaysia is provided by the state, the Malaysian university serves as the major agent for carrying out the state’s functions. Shifts in the priorities of the state’s functions in Malaysia at the different development phases are evident in the five-year national development plans (First Malaysia Plan: 1965-70, Second Malaysia Plan: 1971-75, Third Malaysia Plan: 1976-80, Fourth Malaysia Plan: 1981-85, Fifth Malaysia Plan: 1986-1990, Sixth malaysia Plan: 1991-1995). For example, the first few plans emphasized the legitimation function because the nation was undergoing a period of decolonization immediately after independence. The more recent plans indicate a strong pro-growth strategy emphasizing more on capital accumulation. The change of emphasis in national development strategies is, in turn, usually reflected in the policies regarding university education.

Towards a Conceptualization of a Theoretical Framework

The above discussion suggests that educational policies, including those relating to the development of state-funded universities, are generally a reflection of national development strategies. Development strategies are formulated in response to national needs as they articulate with the political and economic context in specific societies at a particular development phase. But there may exist a discrepancy between the formulation of the model of university education and the way it is implemented. The precise role of university education in national development is mediated by the human actors within the university (such as the academic staff) through the ways they carry out their work. The implementation of programs by the academics is influenced by their professional ideology and identity which are usually shaped by their perception of the goals of university education and their interpretation of how these goals can accommodate national development goals.

Hence, the role of the university is seen as the outcome of a complex process of interaction between ideology of those human agents, the power relationships between the internal and external agencies and the existing socio-economic and political conditions. These sociological insights, drawn from the literature review, provide a broad theoretical perspective that guided the development of this study about the contemporary role of university in Malaysia. As mentioned earlier, university role in this study is operationalized in terms of its goal priorities and its relationship to the government and the industries. The conception of university goals and the issues associated with university-government and university-industry relationships are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

THE DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITIES

University Role and Goals

Central to the study is the concept of university role. A number of words in the literature are used interchangeably to describe the same concept: purpose, mandate, mission, vision, priorities, aims, objectives, functions and goals.

A university conceives its goals according to the institution's essential understanding of itself, its philosophy and *raison d'etre*, its ideology as an educational, social and political entity. To quote Peterson and Uhl (1977), "a goals conception is an expression of what the institution stands for" and hence it represents its identity. Peterson and Uhl further define a goal as "a desired condition, either to be achieved or maintained" and that an institutional goal is "an ideal condition that the institution can continuously seek to maximize or to perfect". For them, a goal can be thought of as "a statement of continuing intent". Similarly, Etzioni (1964) defines an organizational goal as "a desired state of affairs which the organization attempts to realize" (p.6).

Unlike those of most businesses and other essentially single purpose organizations, the goals of public educational institutions are diverse and complex because of the diversity of faculty interests and other competing interest groups. Furthermore, most universities are not autonomous from the government bureaucracy. In many countries like Malaysia, for example, the universities are directly under the government's superordinate authority which sets guidelines to direct their activities. Consequently, internal campus dynamics are strongly influenced by the state-defined national purposes and plans.

Peterson and Uhl (1977) contend that the most fundamental difficulty in defining the university goal priorities arises from the multiplicity of alternatives that are variously supported, often in conflicting manner by powerful interested groups. The academic community may be sharply at odds with external groups about what they believe their institutions should be doing. National policy-makers work from the national perspective and national needs. In contrast, the general public is more concerned with personal economic rewards and hence is interested in how university education will benefit them individually. But these individual private returns from university education may be contradictory to societal common good. The point is that each group has its own interests in university education, and often this diversity in interests causes conflict, both within and outside the campus, over how the university's multiple goals should be prioritized.

Peterson and Uhl (1977) point out that because of these powerful groups and their conflicting interests, universities are rarely left on their own to create the goal conceptions for themselves. Instead their mandate is usually derived from outside. Universities generally have little choice but to add a myriad of new functions to their traditional ones, largely in response to the social and economic change and developments of the day. Consequently over time, the university often loses its sense of direction, especially when it is being pulled to serve opposing goals. It is therefore important for universities to review their goals from time to time to refocus. For this reason, The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1973), one of the most prestigious organizations in higher education, recommends that from time to time, institutions of higher education reaffirm their sense of purpose for their own sake and for the sake of public understanding and assent.

University goals can be conceived in an almost infinite way. For example, the Carnegie Commission 1973 Report defines five purposes and six major functions for fulfilling the mission of higher education in the United States, and Richman and Farmer (1977) propose a list of thirty one common goals pursued by various types of higher educational institutions. These goals are categorized as program goals, student impact goals, faculty-oriented goals, institution and administration goals, and the goals related to "the outside world". Trow (1970) identifies the three main functions of traditional colleges and universities as commitment to the transmission of higher culture, creation of new knowledge through pure scholarship and basic scientific research, and the selection, formation and certification of elite groups. The traditional purposes of a university - teaching, research and public service (Hall, 1972, Usher, 1982) - are too broad to serve as guides for organizational analysis or practice. Often, many universities find themselves carrying out a great many activities which are only remotely related to teaching, research and public service. Attention to and the need for clearer specification of goals are necessary to help universities refocus their priorities in view of the rapid changes and pressures such as the economic and social crises that call for different priorities and emphases in the university's mission.

In order to achieve greater specificity in goal identification, some researchers (Perrow, 1961, Gross, 1968, Gross and Grambsch, 1968, Peterson and Uhl, 1977) found it useful to categorize the range of institutional goals by distinguishing between goals which are in effect the "ends" that the institution seeks to realize and goals which facilitate the attainment of those ends. Perrow (1961) thus contrasts "official goals" with "operative goals". Official goals are those statements or pronouncements regarding the goals of the organization made by the key officials which are usually declared in the organization's official documents. The operative goals, on the other hand, ensure the achievement of the official goals. Gross (1968) defines the usual goals of teaching, research and community service as "output goals". These differ from "support goals" which involve a variety of activities that ensure that the university is run in desired ways to motivate participation. Instead of output and support goals, Peterson and Uhl (1977) prefer to use the terms "outcome" and "process" in their final version of the Institutional Goals Inventory (IGI). As it will become evident, the IGI, a published instrument that has been widely used for studying institutional goals by American universities and colleges, proves to be useful too for this study of Malaysian universities.

The views of academics regarding university goals and their priorities are important in the formulation (and reformulation) and achievement of goals. That personal ideologies of organizational members do affect the achievement of organizational goals (Kwong, 1979; Carnoy, 1984; Etzioni 1964; Gross & Grambsch, 1968) has already been discussed earlier in Chapter 2 (p. 26 - 30). It is possible that the desired state of affairs for any organization may be viewed differently by its members and moreover, an individual's goals may not correspond with the goals of a particular institution of which s/he is a member. The point is that personal and institutional goals do influence one another. To consensus theorists, it is important to reach a working consensus on basic institutional goals to ensure the degree of internal harmony and sense of community which are critical to overall institutional effectiveness. To conflict theorists, it is important to understand the conflicting interests and the tensions within and between the different groups who are charged with defining educational goals, in order to ensure social justice and equality. To conflict theorists, education and particularly higher education, is a highly contested arena for social struggle and control.

It is the aim of this study to examine Malaysian academics' perceptions of university goals. Their perceptions help reveal the dynamics involved in the development of the modern university and society in Malaysia because they provide insights into the relationship between the university, the state and the economy. As a background to the study, a overview of the origin and development of universities in general is presented in the following section.

Origin and Development of Universities

The contemporary university is an institution which is crucial to every modern society. It is the most important modern institution for knowledge creation and distribution. As well, being "traditionally elite institutions, modern universities have provided social mobility to previously disenfranchised groups" (Altbach, 1991). Universities also provide training in specialized occupations that are important in modern societies. Moreover, they often serve as centers of political thought and they train future members of the political elite.

New knowledge is becoming increasingly important for the development of modern societies. Never in history has knowledge been so central to the conduct of an entire society. In the past, wealth, welfare and power depended largely on land and produce, and then, on minerals and energy. Today, they depend on the speedy practical application of knowledge (Kitzinger, 1991).

New knowledge has been considered to be one of the most important factors in economic growth. Because of this, the university which holds the key to new knowledge, is being called upon to produce certain useful knowledge as never before to promote national development (Altbatch, 1990; Saha, 1991; Singh, 1991; Wang, 1992; Scott, 1993;). The university is being scrutinized in all aspects, as a result of the increasing recognition of its uses, particularly in relation to economic growth and international economic competitiveness. Thus the university is being encouraged to merge its activities with industry as never before. The importance of the knowledge industry is permeating government and business. At the center of this knowledge process is the university. Hence, the evolution of the modern university is closely related to its new role as an instrument for economic development.

An Overview of the Historical Development of Universities

According to Kerr (1963) the university has historically been growing in concentric circles. It started in Greece with philosophy and a library. It spread to the ancient professions and then to science. Eventually it incorporated agriculture and now it also responds to the needs of modern industry. Originally, it served the elites of society, then the middle class as well. Since the 1950s, with the popularity of liberal ideology in advanced western societies, it has tried to include the children of all social and economic backgrounds.

Kerr (1963) further adds that spatially, the modern western university often reflects its history, with the library and the humanities and social sciences at the center of the campus, extending out to the professional schools and scientific laboratories and surrounded by industry. Today's new connection between the university and industry has brought about a vast transformation whereby the two sectors are becoming increasingly more alike. As the university becomes more tied to the world of work, professors take on the characteristics of an entrepreneur. The two worlds are thus merging both physically and psychologically.

In order to gain a clear perspective on the current problems, issues and challenges that confront the modern universities, it is useful to briefly trace the main stages in the development of these institutions, with particular reference to those universities in the English-speaking countries (e.g. England and the United States), because these were emulated by universities in Malaysia.

Essentially, there are four main stages in the growth of the university: the medieval period, the 1500 to 1850 period, the 1850 - 1950 period, and post-World War II period.

The Medieval Period

The medieval university was a community of masters and students, a typical example of the guild system (Husen, 1991). Students flocked there as apprentices to learn from men known for their scholarship. These early universities were informal and unstructured organizations until the twelfth century (Ross, 1976). The first formal universities were probably those of Paris, Bologna, Oxford and Cambridge. The Paris and the British models placed the professor at the center of the institution and enshrined autonomy as an important part of the academic ethos. The competing model was the student-dominated University of Bologna in Italy, which did not gain a major foothold in Europe (Altbach, 1991).

According to Ross (1976), by 1500, there were seventy universities in Europe. Some of the early universities, such as the Italian universities tended to emphasize the training of professions including law, medicine, theology and state administration. But many were centers of pure scholarship and taught humanistic studies and liberal arts such as grammar, dialectic, rhetoric, geometry, arithmetic, astronomy and music. It is this latter university form and tradition that took root in England and later spread to North America.

The medieval universities were places of adventure, of intellectual discovery and excitement, where unorthodox topics, ideas and theories were investigated and discussed. "The whole world of knowledge was to be explored ...no facet of it was forbidden" (Ross, 1976, p. 7). Medieval universities were dynamic institutions, exploring new fields of intellectual inquiry with stimulating teachers and enthusiastic students.

The structure of many of the practices adopted by universities were drawn from the established institutions - the church, the monastery and the guild. The idea of the medieval university and its evolution are best captured in the description by Ross (1976):

> The merging of these ideas gave the university its distinctive character and structure: a self-governing community with an elected hierarchy, separated from the world of commerce, involved in a mission to learn and to teach at an advanced level, using mysterious rituals and dress to dramatize its uniqueness, and requiring from its members deep loyalty to and enduring support for each other and the university. The conception of what a university is, or should be, is deeply rooted in academic ideology and has been stoutly defended by scholars in the centuries that have followed.
>
> What is important to recognize is that this ideology and these practices, however often they were ignored, distorted, or abused in medieval times or in the centuries that followed, constituted a model of what a university should be. Like...any statement of faith, it motivated men to work toward the ideal; it disturbed their conscience when it was not achieved; and it became part of the university mythology, sacred in the lives of traditional scholars. (p. 13-14).

Ross further points out that though by the end of the fifteenth century the university was firmly established, it was a less vital and productive organization than in its early days.

The 1500 - 1850 Period

This period of three and a half centuries, between 1500 and 1850 was "one of somnolence, even stagnation and retreat for the universities in England and North America" (Ross, 1976, p 14). This is puzzling because the Renaissance was at its peak in 1500, followed some time after by the Reformation and the French Enlightenment period. It was a time of great discoveries and inventions, both physical, scientific and artistic. Yet, the universities were not responsive to these dynamic social and intellectual movements. Instead they were encapsulated by narrow religious dogmas and antiquated methods of teaching. Consequently, Ross (1976) states that:

> It would be no exaggeration to say that most of the greatest works in literature, philosophy, science medicine, law, and music during the period 1500-1850 were produced outside the university,... although some of the creators of these works were university graduates and perhaps received early stimulation or inspiration there. (p. 16)

The 1850 - 1950 Period

This period saw the revitalization of the university. The industrial revolution, the emergence of capitalism and the development of critical social thought created an environment conducive to a reawakening of the university.

The university not only rose to the challenge, but moreover contributed much to the shaping of the new society (Ross, 1976). This led to the development of the modern university, with its emphasis on research and graduate studies. It was at this stage in the development of the university that its role in shaping nation states became prominent.

In the mid-nineteenth century, the university was harnessed for nation-building beginning in a newly united Germany (Altbach, 1991). Higher education was given significant resources by the state and the German universities were charged with the responsibility for research aimed at national development and industrialization. For the first time, graduate education and research became integral functions of the university. Prior to this, universities had been solely teaching and training institutions (Husen, 1991). The Berlin University, also known as the Humboldt model, was organized as a hierarchy based on the newly emerging scientific disciplines.

The German research and graduate university influenced the founding of three new universities in the United States - the University of Chicago (1892), Johns Hopkins University (1875) and Clark University (1889). The Americans enhanced the German innovations and transformed higher education even more by strengthening the links between the university and the wider society based on the concept of "service" and by forging a direct relationship with industry and agriculture (Husen, 1991). Practical studies relevant to agriculture and industry were introduced in higher education, e.g. the "land-grant" colleges (Kerr, 1963). The universities in the United States were generally very responsive to the social and economic needs of the day, by providing, among other things, an array of vocationally-oriented courses to an expanding student clientele.

In England, two university traditions emerged. On the one hand, there were the national universities of Oxford and Cambridge, still elitist in orientation and focused on scholarship and the production of knowledgeable and cultured gentlemen of society (Ross, 1976). The newer British universities were provincial, offering the students from professional and industrial middle classes more utilitarian undergraduate programs which were more responsive to the technological and manpower needs of society. It was not until after the Second World War that the University Grants Committee provided capital grants to all universities, thereby beginning a new era of development for the newer universities.

The Post-Second World War Period

Following the Second World War, the transition from an industrial to a service and welfare society in the advanced western countries gave rise to a rapidly growing public sector and a corresponding demand for trained manpower in different occupations including teaching, social work and office work (Husen, 1991). Also, during this period, especially between 1950 to 1975, university enrolment rose significantly in several European countries, the United States, Canada and some developing countries. The university changed from an elite to a mass institution. This enrolment increase was accompanied by diversification and specialization of training programs and research. The term "multiversity" was coined by Kerr (1963) to describe this transformation. Husen (1991) observes that during the last few decades, a new role for the university has been considered, i.e., the provision of recurrent education and continuing education to update specific knowledge.

Universities in non-Western Countries

The western university models were emulated in other parts of the world. Most of the universities in Africa, India and Latin America and Asia, especially the colonies were direct transplants of the European colonizers (Altbach and Selvaratnam, 1989; Husen, 1991). While there may be some local variations over the years due to the process of indigenization, the basic structure and organization, pattern of governance and university ethos - the core features of a university - within a developing country remain remarkably similar to the traditional western ideal (Altbach and Selvaratnam, 1989; Husen, 1991).

Current University Crisis

Many of the major issues confronting contemporary universities relate to Post-War changes in the balance of priorities, such as between undergraduate versus graduate education, advanced knowledge versus technical skill training, and elitism versus mass enrolment. All have arisen from the accountability argument. As enrollments increased, and budgets and research grants decreased, the existing arrangements for governance and administration were severely strained. The structure of the university was inevitably affected. Bureaucracy, with its extensive regulations, its accompanying "red tape" and its impersonality have increased. Ross (1976) points out that during the early 1960s, the status of the university was great. But the shift in frontiers, the change in roles, the multiplication of functions, the administrative strains of growth were eroding this status. The press for greater accountability poses a major threat to the university's stability and erodes its autonomy. The issue of university accountability-autonomy is still very much the subject of intense debate (Eustace, 1994; Tierney, 1993; Warnock, 1992; Albornoz, 1991; Dillemans, 1989).

The university crisis of today can perhaps be better understood by looking at what a university was traditionally. The traditional academic cloister, the Paris model was Cardinal Newman's idea of a university. Newman's view was reflected in the Oxford University of a century ago as "the high protecting power of all knowledge and science, of fact and principle, of inquiry and discovery, of experience and speculation; it maps out the territory of the intellect..." (quoted in Kerr, 1963, p 2). Newman favored "liberal knowledge" and regarded "useful knowledge" as a "deal of trash". Unlike Newman, Bacon believed that knowledge should be for the benefit and use of men..." (Kerr, 1963, p. 2).

By 1852, when Newman wrote about the academic ideal of what a university should be, the German universities were emerging as the new model of what Flexner called "a modern university". The industrial and scientific revolutions were all well under way in the western world. Science was beginning to take the place of moral philosophy, research the place of teaching. By 1930 the university had changed profoundly. This evolution brought departments and institutes into the university, created vast research libraries and turned the philosopher into a researcher with specialization. Instead of the needs of individual students, there were the needs of the society; instead of Newman's eternal truths in the natural order, there was discovery of the new; instead of the generalists, there were the specialists. The university became, in Flexner's words, "an institution consciously devoted to the pursuit of knowledge, the solution of problems, the critical appreciation of achievement and the training of men at a really high level" (quoted in Kerr, 1963, p 4).

According to Kerr, (1963), by mid-twentieth century, the American university had become a multiversity, a long way from Flexner's "Modern University" based on the German model, where "the heart of a university is a graduate school of arts and sciences, the solidly professional schools (namely medicine and law) and certain research institutes". Newman's "ivory tower" university still has its devotees - chiefly the humanists, the generalists and undergraduates. Flexner's "Modern University" has its supporters too - chiefly scientists and graduate students. And the Multiversity has its supporters - mainly the administrators and the leadership groups in society at large.

These university models reflect competing visions of the purpose of a university, each relating to a different period of history and a different web of social forces. Kerr (1963) remarks that the university is so many things to so many different people, that it must, of necessity, be partially at war with itself.

It can be said that today, the university is still in a state of identity crisis in a sense that it is continually struggling to define its own sense of purpose within the rapidly changing environment of the late 20th century. The nature of this on-going crisis and its causes has varied widely and is further complicated by the fiscal restraint and economic contraction which has taken hold since the 1970s in North America and other Western societies. Concern with how to resolve the crisis and how the university can regain its purpose and stability has led to a serious rethinking on the part of both the academic community and national development planners, about what should be the relationship between the university and the wider society. The current period of economic contraction in the West is encouraging policy-makers and some academics too, to think about the role of the university in purely economic terms.

In the developing countries too, the promotion of social and economic development has become a major role of the university (Husen, 1991; Saha, 1991; Altbach, 1991; Singh, 1991). The experiences of the newly industrializing countries in Asia, namely Singapore, Taiwan the Republic of

Korea and Malaysia illustrate that "the role of higher education institutions as the principal producers of the scientific and technological know-how and manpower training contributing to national goals and development cannot be overlooked" (Singh, 1991, p. 399). The economic role of the university is complicated by an affirmation of indigenous values and problems out of the recognition that "the 'eurocentric' model of university has been hampering universities in these countries in releasing endogenous creativity and seeking their own cultural roots" (Husen, 1991, p. 174).

Hence, irrespective of whether a university is in an advanced or in a developing country, whether it is in a hi-technology information-based society or subsistence economy, and whether the economy is contracting or expanding, the institution plays a crucial role in promoting the social and economic development of the society in which it is located. Although the university as an institution may be conservative and rigid, it is a dynamic social system that interacts with the particular problems arising from the phase of development in which the country is engaged. Within each development phase, the question would be: what should be the goals of university education vis-a-vis development? In other words, what should be the relationship between the university and development? The literature on this topic indicates that this question is closely intertwined with the historical uniqueness of the country in which the university is located and with the prevailing social-economic and political landscape of both the country concerned and the world in general.

Visions of the University

Visions are shaped by political-economic context to provide the blueprint for the development of the university. According to Newson and Buchbinder (1988), visions are practical responses. They point out that visions have the potential for mobilizing and bringing into play the human agents and the necessary political and economic resources that can control the process of change in universities. They shape debate over university policy within the government and within the universities themselves because they direct the funding formulae, curricula designs, criteria for hiring, tenuring and the academic work processes, and the creation of institutional structures based on the accepted vision. Visions have real sponsors who have specific institutional, socio-political and economic locations (Newson and Buchbinder, 1988). They can be used by various groups to justify certain patterns of change. Alternative visions of the university, by the same argument, are used to justify resistance to certain changes and movement in a totally different direction.

Newson and Buchbinder (1988) identify three major visions namely, the university as an academic haven, as a tool for economic growth and as a instrument for social transformation. These formulations are not new but rather old ones revived and reshaped to address current problems.

Academic Haven Vision

The academic haven vision emphasizes scholastic excellence for its own sake, i.e., the intrinsic value of knowledge. The famous advocate of this traditional university model was Cardinal Newman. The vision of the university as a scholarly haven challenges the academic community to reinstate the university as the institution "with a primary allegiance to cognitive rationality, to discipline-search for truths" (Chapman, quoted in Newson and Buchbinder, 1988, p 57). Chapman argues that for the last two decades, the academic and moral integrity of the western university has been eroded by the politicization of knowledge, by efforts to democratize the institution and by the pursuit of utilitarian aims. In the quest to satisfy social and economic needs of the wider society, the university becomes subject to vocationalization and politicization. This results in the displacement of the cognitive rationality of university education by economic, social and political ones. The decline of academic standards is the result of excessive expansion of higher education brought about by persuasive arguments of democratization, social egalitarianism and economic imperatives. In addition, the politically driven policies and the pressures of human capital theorists have led to educational inflation, minimal competition in the process of admitting students, adoption of practical courses and programs, and utilitarianism and politicization in university management. These consequences contaminate and erode academic excellence in the university.

The university must resist these pressures which are "irrelevant to the life of the mind and loyalty to truth" (Polin, quoted in Newson and Buchbinder, 1988, p 57) and needs to be restored to its rightful place. This argument implies that the university should be the servant of no creed or party and should rid itself of outside pressures that tend to shape its priorities and corrupt its primary purpose. In short, the academic haven vision of the university objects to the idea that universities should be a means to achieve any goal (whether social economic or political) that would limit its academic freedom and affect its intellectual integrity, thus distracting it from its primary purpose of pursuing knowledge and truth.

Because the exponents of scholastic excellence abhor the use of the university to satisfy the needs of the economy or to transform society, the academic haven model is derogatorily referred to as an "ivory tower" founded on elitism and thus concerned with socially and economically irrelevant pursuits. Exponents of a more accountable university model such as the economic tool vision criticize these ivory tower ideals and pursuits as being irrelevant to solving the economic problems of social mobility, poverty or of economic growth.

Economic Tool Vision

Exponents of the economic tool vision contend that university holds the key to social and economic development. This vision is strongly influenced by Schultz' human capital theory. From this perspective, the university is viewed as a tool for economic growth by training a qualified labor force to boost the economy. In order to facilitate economic recovery and the successful transition to the emerging 'high-tech' society, university research and curricula must be more closely tuned to the needs of the market-place. Accordingly, this vision calls for a greater collaboration between universities and the business community.

Because the economic tool model advances the argument that countries must develop their own intellectual infrastructure and the scientific technical capacity to escape dependency and poverty, many newly-industrializing countries (NICs) in Asia (Singapore, Taiwan, the Republic of Korea and Malaysia) subscribe to it. These countries thus depend on their universities to supply the technical and scientific knowledge and manpower needed for their intensive industrialization program (Singh, 1991).

The economic tool vision of the university is well represented in the 1984 Canadian publication of the Corporate-Higher Education Forum, entitled "Partnership for Growth" by Maxwell and Currie (Newson and Buchbinder, 1988). This report argues that the way to reverse the declining quality of Canadian universities (caused by budget cutbacks since the 1970s) is through the use of corporate funds in exchange for universities' contribution to corporate needs. The corporate need for technological know-how to gain a competitive edge in the global market, coupled with underfunding of universities by the government, provide ideal conditions for forging partnerships between the academic and business communities (Newson and Buchbinder, 1988).

It has been pointed out that there are serious ramifications for the university when it enters into such partnerships (Smith, 1974, Newson and Buchbinder, 1988; Woodhouse, 1988). First, the relationship will not be one between equals because the corporations will define the needs and universities will compete with each other to meet them. Second, universities will have to compromise some of their principles, such as surrendering some control over research priorities and publications, curriculum design, student admission standards, etc. In other words, because of the substantial cultural differences between universities and the corporate sectors, universities will have to give up or modify their most cherished traditions of academic freedom and institutional autonomy. Thirdly, the corporate agenda represents an expansion of the role of capital in universities, thus threatening to transform them into cultural institutions of capitalism which are more favorable to capital accumulation (Smith, 1974; Jhally, 1989; Pannu et al., 1994). The capital control of education ensures the perpetuation of the social and cultural system that allows the dominant capitalist classes to partake more fully than others of the reward system of the society (Bowles and Gintis, 1976; Bourdieu, 1973).

Social Transformer Vision

The third vision of the university identified by Newson and Buchbinder (1988) is that of social transformer. This vision is based on the radical perspective that educational institutions are to transform consciousness with respect to all social, economic and political relationships in order to effect long-term changes in basic social structures. This vision emphasizes the achievement of a more equitable society. Exponents of this vision believe that universities have a crucial part to play in this transformation. An important objective of this vision is, therefore, to promote critical analysis of the social reality and to make students subjects rather than objects, of the learning process. This vision is based on Friere's theory of liberation through education (Fagerlind and Saha, 1989). This theory presumes that education empowers and liberates the individuals by transforming their consciousness with respect to all social economic and political relationships that will in turn, affect changes in the social structures. For this reason, exponents of the social transformer vision advocate the democratization of higher education. Like the academic haven vision, the social transformer vision defends university autonomy, but for different reasons. But unlike the academic haven vision, it espouses an active social and political role for the university in relation to its societal context. Like the economic tool vision, the social transformer vision also promotes university expansion but, again for different reasons.

The social transformer vision can be criticized for being concerned more with accessibility of education than with its quality. It is a vision that has been marginalized by the present exaltation of technological innovations and economic competition (Newson and Buchbinder, 1988).

Newson and Buchbinder (1988) point out that many societies, both socialist and advanced capitalist, have succumbed to the powers of the new forces of economic production in recent years. Government budget cutbacks to universities throughout the advanced states and the pervasive thinking that universities hold the key to economic growth have led to growing business-university cooperation. Hence, rather than being a force for social transformation, the universities are instead serving the demands of the forces of economic production and of social reproduction. This priority given to economic growth and technological innovation has elevated the economic tool vision such that it has emerged as the prevailing one.

During the 60s and 70s, the three visions coexisted in relative harmony as the university then was able to accommodate these disparate visions, probably because of generous funding and the relative absence of external control either by the state or by business (Pannu et al., 1994). According to Newson and Buchbinder (1988), in Canada the academic haven and the tool for economic growth visions have acquired more support than the vision of the university as a social transformer. This is because these two visions imply changes in the university which are compatible with the currently hegemonic ideology of the neo-liberal political economies. And despite their differences, "these two visions exist symbiotically" (Newson and Buchbinder, 1988, p. 66). A new term, "Service University" has been coined by the Science Council of Canada to describe the central thrust of these two visions - promoter and guardian of academic achievement at the highest level and instrument of high-tech corporate development at a more basic level. Newson and Buchbinder's argument implies that the service university has successfully competed with the other three visions of the university.

However, Pannu et al. (1994) contend that the service university model "expresses less a vision and more of a mere reaction to current external pressures", most of which are caused by the shift in Canada and other similar industrial societies towards post-Keynesian and neo-liberal political economies. They argue that the increasing presence of three developments after 1970 (retrenchment of the welfare state, the emergence of institutional capitalism and the escalation of cultural commodification) which form the context of university restructuring, have led to the emergence of the service university. These contextual developments have also incapacitated the state from mediating impartially between different groups. Instead, the state in its new role, "acts to mediate class relations in ways designed to privilege capital vis-a-vis other groups in civil society" (Pannu et al., 1994, p. 522). For this reason, Pannu et al. conclude that the service university is a "reactive university" that is "unable to set its own goals for it is unable to develop a vision that could provide a framework for these goals" (p. 521).

Issues related to University Crisis

The current major issues of university crisis are closely related to the competing visions of the contemporary university. The issues that gain prominence depend on which of the major interest groups - the academics, the business and the state - has the most powerful voice in the defining the vision. The social-political landscape of the country in which the university is located determines the power relationship among these groups, while a new world order that is being constructed via global economic restructuring frames the context for university restructuring (Pannu et al., 1994). The issues of university crisis relate essentially to the changing state-university relationship and the growing business-university cooperation.

Pannu et al. (1994) point out that a current wave of government plans, acts, regulations, and recommendations are forcing universities throughout the world into the marketplace. This trend in university restructuring is prominent in Western and Eastern Europe, Australia, North

America as well as in the developing countries of Latin America, Africa and Asia.

In the United States, a business-Higher Education Forum was established in 1978 with the explicit purpose of aligning higher education with the corporate sector (Pannu et al., 1994). A national project on higher education and economic development was conducted during 1985 and 1986 by the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU, 1986) in cooperation with the National Association of Management and Technical Assistance Center (NAMTAC). Its purpose was to identify efficient models of higher education that could effectively serve the economic development needs. Pannu et al. (1994) further observe that, in Canada, the Corporate-Higher Education Forum was created in 1983 to harmonize the activities of the universities with business, and in Australia, in 1986, the government Council for Economic Planning stressed the need to improve the business- and technological-related disciplines in the universities. At the European Center for Higher Education Symposium held in 1983 (Wolter and Oehler, 1986), the economic role of universities was discussed and concerns such as the following were raised. When academic institutions become engaged with the profit making sector, they are likely to face value conflicts. To what extent should higher education be encouraged to maximize the values of cognitive rationality (production of knowledge, search for truth, teaching and learning in the broadest sense). To what extent should it be required to respond more directly to the values and needs of other sectors of society? Similar discussions focusing on the drift of universities toward a market economy were also taking place in Eastern Europe, in Latin America, as well as in the developing countries of Asia and Africa (Pannu et al., 1994). In sum, universities, especially the state-funded ones, are confronted with external pressures to be more efficient and more accountable by increasing their economic contribution to national development. The discussion above indicates that universities are grappling with the challenge of how they can best serve the economic needs of development without overly compromising on their traditional values. Fishbein (1985) points out that universities have the ability and responsibility to diminish external intrusiveness by developing internal mechanism of accountability. This would help to limit the extent to which external pressures can shape university priorities and erode its autonomy.

University Autonomy

The exponents of the academic haven model argue that the university is an institution concerned with the creation and transmission of knowledge and that relative institutional autonomy is required for these central functions to be fulfilled. Interference from any other institution may constitute a threat both to the university's autonomy and its ability to create and transmit knowledge. Echoing Winchester (1986), Woodhouse (1986) maintains that the ideal university, both during medieval times and today, emphasizes "its independence, its neutrality and impartiality, its bookishness, its concern for the advancement of knowledge critically and, finally its role as a cultural center" (p.3). What unites each of these elements is the notion of critical and analytical knowledge in open and honest communications among equals concerned with the pursuit of truth. This process can occur only when the university is autonomous and guarantees open political discussion of intellectual and social matters, because, only then, will it be able to further systematic criticism and protect those engaged in such criticism from external interference and censure (Woodhouse, 1986). Advocates of the scholarly haven model insist that universities must resist external pressures which require that intellectual discipline, cognitive rationality and loyalty to truth be compromised. The main tenets of this traditional model are academic freedom and institutional autonomy, which are the necessary conditions for the pursuit of truth. For these reasons, the advocates argue that the university must maintain at least relative autonomy from the interventions of both the corporate world and the state.

In North America, the threat to university autonomy lies less in the intervention of an authoritarian government than in the government's neglect of the university system as a result of diminishing funds for higher education. Because of budget cuts, Canadian universities are tempted to strengthen their links with the large corporations. It is a temptation which receives impetus from the evolving university financial framework which the post-Keynesian state appears to be putting in place. There is fear that such a linkage will integrate the corporate and university world for the purpose of making the latter a source of profit for the former, thereby making the university a part of the production process.

However, the differences between a university and a profit-oriented organization are profound (Jhally, 1989; Woodhouse 1988; Smith, 1984;). The production and transmission of knowledge for the purpose of truth-seeking, communication and criticism differ dramatically from the production and distribution of commodities for the purpose of profit. The former involves open and undistorted communication among equals for its success, whereas the latter requires domination of the mass of producers and the manipulation of consumers to maximize profit.

University-Industry Linkage

Despite the differences in purposes and processes between the university and the corporate world, there are many comparable procedures and positions of authority and power in the two organizations. Many leaders in both organizations foresee and welcome closer linkages between the two. Maxwell and Currie's report, Partnership for Growth (1984), suggests that the partnership is not only inevitable because of the current economic forces but also desirable. The "indus-versity" model of cooperation (Newson and Buchbinder, 1988) is strongly encouraged by the American Association of State Colleges and Universities.

The case for such cooperation stems from the concern to be competitive in world markets. It is argued that universities are needed to produce leading edge knowledge, products, processes and services to compete in the world markets of the 1990s. Clearly, the benefit to the corporate world is clearly profit maximization. For the universities, the linkage also bring benefits, such as an alternative source of funding during times of government budget cutbacks, access to both market knowledge and experience, and additional Research Development activities (R & D) etc.

But, for Woodhouse (1988), the cultural differences between the two institutions are too substantial for the partnership to be acceptable. Such a partnership affects the very ground rules of the university with respect to its truth-seeking, open and free communication and self-directed research as against the profit-motive, corporate secrecy and the matching of research to market needs. The academe is a culture which is characterized by values, goals and ways of working which are fundamentally at odds with profit, market-forces and competition. As such it would be difficult to squeeze the academe into conformity with the market ideology (Broadfoot, 1988). Hence, in a university-industry partnership, there is a danger that the academic ethos of the university will be replaced by market values (Pannu et al., 1994; Newson and Buchbinder, 1988).

In addition to substantial cultural differences, Woodhouse (1988) points out that the university-corporate partnership would likely be one of unequal relationship. There are many implications of such a power relationship for the academics (Newson and Buchbinder, 1988). For example, academic work has to be reorganized in ways that would facilitate the implementation of the service university model. There will be changes too in administrative structures when the shift of control to full-time managers is consolidated in order to develop relations with corporate clients. On this issue, Newson and Buchbinder (1988) raise the following questions: What would be the impact of this relationship on academic excellence and quality as the university gears its energy and talents to the needs of the corporate sector? To what extent can the academe really compromise on academic freedom? Are academics even aware that the corporate-university linkage would change the institutional ground of their workplace and affect the way they carry out their functions as academics (teaching, research and service/publication)?

Many academics believe that they have neither a choice nor the power to determine the destiny of the university (Kerr, 1983; Newson and Buchbinder, 1988). Thus, current shifts in the economy are often taken as a given and their political consequences for the university are seen to be unchangeable, e.g., government policies have manoeuvred the university into the position of meeting the needs of the private sector. To what extent do academics believe this, and that they have to cooperate with the forces at hand? This has implications for the creation of a counter-hegemony to resist capital's invasion of the university and to contest for its control.

On the other hand, to what extent do academics enthusiastically welcome increasing links between the university and business, either as a good in itself or because they believe no harm will result? To what extent do they believe that the university can serve the interests of business without compromising or precluding many of its traditional functions?

The implications of a corporate-university linkage are so significant that it should not be allowed to proceed without serious reflection and debate. Newson and Buchbinder (1988) advise that this seemingly natural and logical partnership should be examined analytically so that academics who cherish their freedom in carrying out their faculty roles would be aware of the implications of such a partnership, especially in terms of the limits it imposes on their range of choice over priorities and methods of work. Whether such a limit would serve the public interest has to be debated publicly, not left to the accommodations of some individual academic decision-makers. Those who believe that they are powerless to resist the pressures on university to conform to the corporate agenda should understand that it is the fragmentation of their academic work that may have created this sense of powerlessness. On the other hand, those who advocate the corporate agenda, claiming that academic workers are a valuable asset to economic development, should press for a public debate to justify their claims for advocating a policy direction that is essentially dictated by economic considerations. These are especially interesting questions to pose to the academics in Malaysia because that country, since 1991, has embarked on an intensive industrialization program.

Newson and Buchbinder (1988) caution that, since it would be dangerous to compromise too much on university autonomy and academic freedom, academics must think very carefully before integrating with the corporate world. It has been suggested that the corporate agenda in a corporate-university linkage represents a renewed expansion of the role of capital in universities.

Economic or Cultural Institutions?

According to Smith (1974), under the influence of capitalism universities in the United States have played an important part in fulfilling the changing needs of that economic system. In working to produce new scientific knowledge and a college-educated working class, the universities, like the state, have become organically linked to the process of production and are critically important to its functioning. Today, the emergence of institutional capitalism and the resulting proliferation of highly coherent networks of business and state representatives provided a new means by which dominant interests can assert their influence on university restructuring so as to create an economic environment even more favorable to capital accumulation (Pannu et al., 1994). There is fear that the influence of institutional capitalism on universities is transforming universities into cultural institutions of capitalism. This occurs when universities operate as economic enterprises producing cultural elements as commodities.

Jhally (1989) contends that cultural institutions begin to function as economic ones when culture is produced first and foremost as a commodity, resulting in a real (rather than formal) subsumption of culture. Real subsumption of culture is "the logic of industrial production applied to cultural products" (Jhally, 1989, p. 72). It has been pointed out that, when cultural elements are produced as commodities, people are left without the cultural resources to formulate counter-hegemonic discourses. It has been further stressed that counter-hegemonic discourses are important to challenge the cultural institutions of capitalism. Marxist theorists suggest that a counterhegemonic movement endorsing a competing vision of university is necessary if the implementation of a university model dictated by market conditions is to be successfully thwarted.

Alternative Vision

Newson and Buchbinder (1988) suggest that a competing vision of the university, based on counter-ideological reflections, needs to be developed. Such a process will help to build the capacity to resist the trends that are under way. In this regard, resistance theories could be useful to shed light on the process of how university actors are opposing hegemonic models of the university and their attempt to create consensus on alternative ones.

The model that will ultimately be accepted would depend on the ability of the universities to contain the key challenges and pressures. The danger of over-responsiveness to short-term pressures needs to be considered. Perhaps, the major test of the university is perhaps how wisely and how quickly it adjusts to new possibilities while directing its own development toward the fulfillment of the goals assigned high priority by the academic community. This will likely be problematic when the academic goals are not compatible with the political and economic agendas.

Summary

The above discussion of the literature provides the background and sociological insights into the research problem regarding the contemporary role of universities. Together with the discussion of the theoretical perspective (Ch. 2), it guided the construction of the six research questions of the study which are stated at the end of Chapter 1. These research questions aim at determining how academics working in two universities in Malaysia perceive the contemporary role of their universities. The next chapter describes the context of the study.

CHAPTER 4

THE MALAYSIAN CONTEXT

An understanding of the context within which this study was undertaken is necessary in order to situate the research problem of the study. For this purpose, this chapter focuses on the changing socio-economic and political landscape in Malaysia and its development of higher education.

Introduction

Malaysia comprises a peninsula adjoining the Southeast Asian mainland and two states (Sabah and Sarawak) on the island of Borneo (Appendix A). The study was conducted in the peninsula, known presently as West Malaysia. Prior to 1963 when Malaysia was formed, it was known as Malaya, a former British colony. Malaya, or West Malaysia obtained her independence from Britain in 1957. In this study, the term, "Malaysia" refers to West Malaysia only. This is because Sabah and Sarawak have a different history as well as a different cultural and economic heritage, and hence are not included in the study.

The Malaysian Society

Malaysia's colonial heritage includes a segmented society divided along communal lines. The three major ethnic groups which compose Malaysian society are Malays, comprising 57% of the population, Chinese 33% and Indians 10% (Department of Statistics, Malaysia, 1987). According to Hua (1983), the heterogenous population fits well into the prototype Furnivalian concept of a plural society in which each ethnic group has its own language, culture, religion, customs and way-of-life. Apart from cultural and religious differences, they are segregated geographically and are also divided in terms of economic activity and occupation. The Malays are in control politically, while the non-Malays, particularly the Chinese, many of whom reside in the urban areas, are the more economically powerful. Ethnic divisions received the greatest attention in the New Economic Policy (NEP) of 1971. These have remained both important and politically sensitive (Abdullah and Mohamed, 1982).

The development of the unique configuration of the plural society in Malaysia can be traced historically to the British colonial era. The British communalist strategy and the colonial educational system contributed to Malaysia's unique socio-economic structure which coincides with the unequal participation of the different ethnic groups in the economy and in the state politics (Snodgrass, 1980, Hua, 1983, Sundaram, 1986, Hunt 1987, Rossides, 1990). In order to appreciate the internal composition of Malaysia, it is necessary to understand the racial and religious differences within its population, the distribution of wealth and ownership, of control, its political structure, and other features of its social formation.

A Historical Perspective

An understanding of the social, political and economic dimensions of the Malaysian development requires an understanding of its history. Pre-colonial Malay society could be characterized as feudal. Unlike these feudal condition, the Islamic religious ideology was as essential a part of political domination as the symbolic significance of *sultans* (Malay rulers) and the aristocracy for the Malay peasantry. The precolonial social formation entailed contradictions that were internal to the Malay feudal mode of production but were exacerbated by external forces resulting from the fact that Malaya was an important trading center of the east-west silk and spice trade. "Contradictions manifested by the frequent succession struggles as well as the fragmentary political units, were exploited by the various European colonial powers including the British" (Hua, 1983, p.18). The feudal institutions were not eradicated when the colonial powers introduced capitalism into the traditional social formation.

The division of the Malayan society on a communal basis between the Malays on the one hand and the Chinese and Indians on the other has its roots in the British colonization of Malaya in late 19th century. The relations among the Malays and Chinese as well as other Asian traders and miners were harmonious and did not take on a communalistic form prior to colonialism. Asian merchants took on the role of intermediaries only when European mercantilism began to dominate trade in the Malay Peninsula. As a consequence of their serving as a link in the chain of exploitation, relations between Asian merchants and the Malays became antagonistic. In other words, the development of capitalism transformed the social-economic structure of Malaya.

According to Magdoff (1969), the social and economic transformation effected by imperialist activities is the defining feature of modern imperialism. This transformation occurred in Malaysia as a result of the impact of capitalism introduced by the British colonialist on the traditional mode of production. The transformation was crucial for the development of communalism in the evolution of the social formation of the present Malaysian society.

British colonial policy

British colonial policy culminated in direct intervention in Malaya in 1874, driven by the imperatives of capitalist development. Towards the end of the 18th century it became increasingly essential for the British to secure commodities that could be traded for Chinese tea. When tin and spices were seen to be the answer, the British began seeking a base in the Malay Archipelago which would enable them to procure these commodities (Hua, 1983). Monopolies or unequal exchange with the local Malay rulers were secured during the early phase of colonialism, based on a non-interventionist policy. However, before the end of the 19th century British colonial policy in the Malay states, much like elsewhere in the world, changed to one of direct intervention when capitalism reached its highest stage according to Lenin's analysis. Monopoly capitalism had emerged out of competitive capitalism. Faced with the challenge from other imperialist countries such as Germany and the USA for industrial supremacy as well as the internal economic development at the metropolitan center itself (such as the class struggle and the decline in the rate of profit, and the need for raw materials and cheaper sources of labor and markets for British manufactured goods), Britain had to take formal control of the Malay states to protect its interests (Hua, 1983). The economic advantages Britain received from its empire would not have been available without direct control of the colonies (Sundaram, 1986, p.141). The signing of the Treaty of Pangkor in 1874 gave British formal control of the Malay states. This also marked the beginning of capitalism's total domination of the traditional mode of production in the Malay states.

The British Communalist Strategy (Divide and Rule)

Fierce Malay resistance to British rule as well as the high cost involved in direct administration led the colonial power to change its method of rule. The co-opting of native chiefs and *penghulus* (village headmen) into state administration was intended to subordinate the feudal class relations in Malay peasant society to colonial rule. Local chiefs and aristocrats were transformed into loyal vassals of the British who could assure them of protection against their rivals and rebellious subjects. The Malay aristocracy was relegated to the minor role of rural administration, while the British filled the executive ranks in all government departments. In this way, the colonial power maintained "the special positions of the Malay ruling class in relation to both the other Malays and other 'Asiatics'" (Roff, quoted in Hua, 1983, p. 29). Hua points out that this cannot be seen as necessitated by political expediency alone, but rather, as an essential part of British communal strategy. Direct British political and administrative control was disguised in the form of "advice" from the Malay rulers (puppets) who held privileged seats in the state councils. Such an arrangement lent legitimacy to British policies.

The *sultans* (Malay rulers) were consulted mainly on matters relating to Malay customs and religion. This assured the Malays that their traditional way of life was not threatened. "Likewise, the safeguarding and defence of Islam gave the Malays a psychological assurance that their country was still theirs, despite the influx of immigrants" (Moshe Yegar, quoted in Hua, 1983, p. 29). Hua concludes that it is also for this reason that religion is inseparably bound up with communalism in Malaysia even today. In contrast to colonial policy elsewhere, Christian missionaries were forbidden to proselytize among the Malays in Malaya since this would conflict with the communalist strategy. Instead, Islamic education was encouraged. This further segregated the Malays from the other ethnic groups (namely Chinese and Indians) living in Malaysia.

To satisfy the growing demand by the Malay ruling class for more Malay positions in the administration, the Kuala Kangsar Malay College was created in 1905. It was patterned after the English public school to educate the sons of the Malay aristocracy for the purpose of staffing the Malayan

Civil Service. While the Malay ruling class was being groomed to participate in the system of colonial rule, British educational policy toward the Malay masses was quite different. The British ensured that the masses were not "overeducated" in accordance with the colonial state policy which was influenced by British capitalist interests. This policy aimed at "confining the Malay peasantry to the subsistence sector" (Hua, 1983, p.31). Hence, it was only later in the 20th century that English schools were established in the rural areas. The graduates of these schools formed the Malay petty bourgeoisie, which occupied the subordinate ranks in the state bureaucracy and became the class most susceptible to the communalist ideology of the state. This class must be distinguished from the ruling class whose members were aristocratic, landowning, and occupants of the highest echelon of the state apparatus. The colonial power by promoting the special position of the Malays in the administration, in fact, excluded the Chinese and Indians from administrative and political office. This illustrates the official categorization of Malaysian nationals of Chinese and Indian origins as "foreigners". By being excluded during the colonial days, even after nearly forty years of independence, Malaysian nationals of non-Malay origins, born and bred in Malaysia still "feel alien" in their own homeland.

The Chinese bourgeoisie class, consisting of the merchant class initially and reduced to the role of middlemen by the colonial economic strategies, dominated the economy. The Chinese middlemen serving the rural areas soon became the target of communalist propaganda by the Malays who portrayed them as the "bloodsuckers" of the Malay peasants (Hua, 1983). Compared to their Chinese counterpart, the Indian commercial bourgeoisie's stake in the whole economy was not large. The Malays, on the other hand, were actively discouraged from commercial activities by the colonial economic and political strategy; the Malay masses were confined to agricultural activities.

As capitalism developed, social relations within the different communities were transformed accordingly. The ready availability of cheap labor power meant that the workers had little bargaining power. Furthermore, the colonial government did not provide any form of social security. With the new and varied forms of economic production, freer movement of labor became possible as more openings for work existed. Gradually, the paternalistic relationship between the worker and employer began to be replaced by a contractual one. With greater mobility of labor and unionization, the workers began to acquire a better bargaining position, and the 1930s saw the beginning of a period of intense class struggles (Hua, 1983). By 1931, the working class was deeply segregated, with the Tamils dominating the rubber industry and the Chinese dominant in the tin and ancillary industries. The Malays were not a substantial part of the working class; rather, the majority of the Malay peasants were engaged in agricultural activities.

There were sound economic and political reasons for preserving the Malay commodity sector. The ferocity of Malay resistance during the initial years of intervention had taught the British not to push the Malay peasants too far by forcing them to abandon their subsistence lifestyle to work in the plantations. Immigrant labor from China and India was the ideal alternative. Large scale immigration of Chinese and Indian waged labor for the capitalist exploitation in urban and plantation sectors led to Malaya's particular class configuration (Abdullah & Mohamed, 1982, Hua, 1983, Sundaram, 1986).

Communalist ideology kept the diversified working peasantry separated not only in terms of division of occupation, but also in terms of geographical and socializing space. S. Husin (quoted by Hua (1983) points out:

> ...the chances of communicating and interacting among themselves [were] limited, and their separation and ignorance of one another's way of life ... led to the formation of stereotypes and prejudices. In other words, although the lower classes of the various races are in almost the same economic position, differences and racial antipathy were widespread among them and these prevented the recognition of a common fate and destiny. (p. 52).

It can then be said that British influence in Malaya led to the emergence of a plural society. The Malays, Chinese and Indians, each possessing its own language, culture, religion, and their differences continue virtually unabated today. Cultural segregation is a striking feature of the Malayan society as the British made no effort to integrate the vast immigrant races into local common institutions. The immigrant races were administered independently as they led an independent existence. Not surprisingly, the vast majority of Malaysians today have uppermost in their consciousness their identity as Malays, Chinese or Indians. Since independence the Chinese, Indians and others from the minor communities have merged into a single group, referred to as the non-Malays or *non-bumiputra*. This has come about because of the special privileges and rights historically accorded by the British colonial rulers to the Malays or *bumiputras* (translated to mean "sons of the soil" to refer to the indigenous people). In sum, today the Malays enjoy political supremacy while the Chinese are economically powerful.

The Political Dimension

By 1956, the year prior to independence, the non-Malays, particularly the middle-class and the English-educated, wanted citizenship and a laissez-faire economy. The demands of the Malays concentrated on their special position as the indigenous people of the country and measures to accelerate their socio-economic progress in competition with the more aggressive immigrants. The Malays feared being swamped by new non-Malay citizens and losing their political hegemony, which they saw as a counter-balance to the economic strength of the Chinese. Therefore, the Malays made substantial concessions with respect to citizenship to the non-Malays in exchange for their recognition of the colonial set-up, the "Malay Special Rights" without limit of time. This was the "bargain of 1957". Thus, communalism was enshrined in Malaysia when it achieved its political independence from the British in 1957.

The Colonial Heritage

When the plural society of Peninsular Malaysia emerged from the British tutelage to become the independent Federation of Malaya in 1957, both its socio-economic problems and its development potentials were enormous. On the Malaysian national balance sheet, then, the liabilities as analyzed by Snodgrass (1980) included a pattern of ethnic cleavage, (in which the two largest groups, Malays and

Chinese differed sharply in terms of culture, occupational pattern and income level); a dependent and over-specialized economy (rubber) that was subject to strong export-induced fluctuations and threatened by competition from a synthetic substitute; and an explosive birth rate of 3% per annum. Malaysia's assets, on the other hand, included the beginnings of a political system with the Alliance Party; a permanent coalition among the Malays, Chinese and Indians; a strong heritage of physical and administrative infrastructure, a favorable ratio of land and other natural resources.

Legacy of the colonial economy

The basic character of Malaya's economy immediately after independence resembled that of a typical colonized nation. Social inequalities persisted since the structure of economic exploitation by imperialism remained unchanged. The system of unequal property relations was never called to question and key sectors of the economy remained firmly in the hands of the metropolitan bourgeoisie (Hua, 1983).

Rubber and tin, raw materials which were crucial to the metropolitan industries, accounted for more than 50% of Malaya's exports. The rubber industry was dominated by foreign ownership; in 1960, over 70% of the larger rubber estates (over 1000 acres) were owned by Europeans (Hua, 1983, p. 112). In the tin industry, three British companies controlled most of the output. The British Agency Houses which served as investment consultants and managers for firms in the metropolis, were crucial links for industrial capital and finance capital in the west. The flight of capital and the repatriation of profits abroad is indicated by Puthucheary when he asserted that "something like 15% of Malaya's national income accrued to foreign capital concerns was siphoned out of the country annually during this period" (quoted in Hua, 1983, p.113).

Even more significant is the internal class problem engendered by an ethnic cleavage in the economic structure. There is not only a notable degree of Chinese predominance in tin mining, Indian predominance in estate labor and Bumiputra predominance in rice production, but there is also the sharp divisions in control and ownership of much of the advanced and most modern sectors of the economy, in which the Bumiputra have an expanding, but disproportionately small share. "It is particularly the more important feature of the economic structure, because poverty, also, is by no means evenly distributed between the racial groups, the politically dominant Bumiputra being the overwhelmingly, the most affected" (M. Zainudin & Zulkifly, 1982, p. 126). Even today as the country prepares itself to participate in the global economy as "an upper middle-class income country"

(Fisk, 1982, p. 3), it is still haunted by the problem of "class in ethnic clothing" (borrowed from Hunt, 1987).

Legacy of colonial education

The legacy of the colonial educational strategy has its impact on the formation of the political and socio-economic structures in Malaysia. The long period of political indoctrination through English education and administration cultivated the idea of sovereignty exclusively among the Malay elite (Lee, 1991). The colonial bureaucracy provided the training ground for members of the Malays elite to practice a bourgeoisie form of authoritarianism. Upon obtaining independence from the British in 1957, the bureaucracy came under the control of Malays. Only a few Chinese and Indians were recruited for administrative positions in the state bureaucracy; a pattern that continues to this day.

Because the Chinese and Indians had limited opportunities in bureaucratic career, they used their English education "to advance their careers in medicine, law, engineering and various technical fields, taking their skills with them when they emigrated to Western countries as a reaction to growing Malay political hegemony in the years after Independence" (Lee, 1991, p. 158). Most members of these two groups lived in the urban areas and thus had ample access to English education in both government and missionary schools. Unlike them, the majority of the Malay peasants lived in the rural areas and they were also denied the opportunity of English education by the colonial communalist policy of maintaining their status quo, aimed at keeping the three communities separate.

Hence, economic prosperity associated with the advantage of English education was not evenly distributed in colonial Malaya. It produced intense competition between the emerging Malay middle class and the established urban non-Malay middle class, leading to conflicts which culminated in the 1969 racial riots.

Nation-building and Prelude to Modernity

After independence in 1957, Malaysia underwent the process of decolonization and the interrelated tasks of integration and nation-building, including economic and social development. These tasks were initially undertaken as the Federation of Malaya (present West Malaysia); then from 1963 including Singapore, Sabah and Sarawak as the Federation of Malaysia; and then from 1965, without Singapore who decided to leave the Federation. From 1966 onwards, the Malaysian government focused on its development program of five-year plans, with education being the major vehicle (Hunt, 1987).

According to the First Malaysia Plan (1966-70) the primary objectives of education and training were to promote national unity, to meet the manpower requirements of the country, and to build a progressive society oriented toward modern science and technology. Premised on human capital and modernization theories, the Plan assumed that a modern and educated labor-force possessing technological and scientific knowledge would spearhead the development of the modern urban sector, which would then pave the way for rapid national economic development in Malaysia.

Following the racial riots of 1969, the government changed the focus of its development emphasis toward an egalitarian growth-distribution policy. This New Economic Policy (NEP), formulated in 1970 called for the eradication of poverty and the restructuring of the society by eliminating the long-standing economic specialization along ethnic lines (Second Malaysia Plan: 1971-1976). It was believed that the framework of the NEP, in providing for a more equitable participation of all Malaysians in the development process, would foster the attainment of national unity. Essentially, the restructuring objective of NEP is to promote Malay hegemony through the interventionist role of the state (Lee, 1992, Sundaram, 1986). In the drive for a undisputed Malay hegemony, "the ideology of *Bumiputraism* was invented to assert Malay indigenousness and to justify development policies in favor of concretising Malay modernity" (Lee, 1992, p. 160). Under the NEP, *Bumiputraism* then became the ideological underpinning of state industrialism.

Bumiputra, which means "sons of the soil", has been used in both official and unofficial contexts to refer to the indigenous peoples of Malaysia, which includes the aboriginal minority and other various ethnic groups in Sabah and Sarawak (the two Borneo states). However, often, the term is used to refer mainly to the Malay group in West Malaysia and *Bumiputraism* is equated with Malay hegemonic aspirations.

It was maintained that education, particularly higher education, was to be the main vehicle of national development. Because it was regarded to be the major avenue of socio-economic mobility and therefore pertinent to the social restructuring aim of the NEP, it was argued that if more Malays could receive higher education, they could participate more effectively in the management of economic activities. To ensure the admission of more Malays into institutions of higher education, the Universities and University Colleges Act of 1971 (Selvaratnam, 1989) was passed. With the passing of this act, higher education in Malaysia was transformed from a relatively autonomous institution to one that is highly state-controlled. Through state control the university serves to carry out the balancing act of establishing legitimacy and ensuring capital accumulation. State control of the universities implies a redefinition of their roles, which in turn requires a reorganization of their structures and programs.

Origin and Expansion of Higher Education in Malaysia

The system of higher education in Malaysia was transplanted from Britain to Malaysia during the British colonial rule. The British system of higher education - its curricula, its organizational structure and ethos - was to a large extent replicated, and formed the basis of the higher education system of Malaysia from the beginning and even for a period after independence (Selvaratnam, 1989).

In keeping with the British university tradition, the university and its academic life were not controlled by the state. Rather, power was located primarily in the university itself, as in the British model. The universities were allowed to draw up their own course-content, award their own degrees and hire their own faculty. The architects of the Malaysian university system, both the colonial administrators and the western educated elites, wanted it to be a replica of the British traditional university with its highly valued autonomous status which they took pride in maintaining and perpetuating (Selvaratnam, 1989). Hence, the University of Malaya, the first Malaysian university (set up in 1962) as well as the newer universities (established in the early 1970s) which were also broadly based on the British model, had enjoyed considerable autonomy in academic matters and internal administration, in spite of the fact that they were financed by public funds.

Similar to the British pattern, the university administrative structure was divided into academic and non-academic matters. Included were the Court, the Council, the Senate, the Faculties, Board of Studies, Board of Selection, Guild of Graduates etc. as prescribed by the University Statutes. Following the British model, the Vice-Chancellor (VC) was appointed by the council as the principal academic and executive officer of the university. The VC was assisted by a few deputy VCs, also appointed from among the senior academics. The VC and the deputies were, in turn, assisted by the registrar in administrative affairs, and by the bursar in financial matters. The Council was the governing body of the university and was the highest authority in determining broad university policies. Academic matters fell solely under the jurisdiction of the Senate, comprised exclusively of academics.

Similar to the metropolitan universities, the academic activities were organized around core disciplines modelled along western liberal education, which had international recognition. The Malaysian universities were organized on the faculty system, wherein each faculty consisted of a group of departments in related fields, engaged in research and teaching. Hence, it can be said that essentially the Malaysian universities were patterned after the "academic haven" British model of university education. However, according to Wong (1981), the Malaysian universities aimed primarily at producing liberally educated "all rounders" who could serve the growing public and private sectors as well as professionals in dentistry, medicine, engineering and accountancy to meet the growing manpower needs of the country.

Towards a National Model of University Education

Because the academic community of this British model of university in Malaysia was preoccupied with autonomy, western academic values, standards and norms central to the international academic community, there was no encouragement to develop indigenously generated knowledge which was directly related to the local socio-economic and cultural environment and its future development (Selvaratnam 1989). The core disciplines that formed the basis of the university curricula were western in origin. In addition, the academic milieu, where free enquiry was enshrined, was characterized by freedom of research, teaching and learning in their respective disciplines. Academic disciplines rather than the institution itself tended to be the dominant force in the working lives of the academics. Academic staff lacked a commitment to the organization as a whole as well as to national issues. This was not surprising since the universities were staffed by a large number of expatriate academics brought in due to the shortage of local scholars (Selvaratnam, 1989). However, in the last two decades, the expatriate academic community has been rapidly replaced by a Malaysian academic community. But again, because most of the local academics received their university education overseas, they continued to be oriented in the western academic traditions. Not surprisingly, therefore, these local academics perpetuated the same western values and continued to teach the same western curricula. Hence the university system could not foster a local academic tradition and knowledge system that could effectively address the urgent national needs.

Malaysian higher education was and still is described as being "on the periphery of an international knowledge system" and suffers from "an unfavourable balance of intellectual payments" (Abdul, quoted in Selvaratnam, 1989, p.197). This is because "the western educational model and its 'intellectual centres' still continue to provide the impetus as well as function as the pinnacles for Malaysian academic system" (Altbach, quoted in Selvaratnam, 1989, p 197). It has been suggested that the development of an endogenous creative intellectual community and a higher education model that could better address the national issues would enable the country to free herself from this form of dependency. Husen (1991) observes that:

> Curricula at universities in the Third World countries have usually been patterned on European models. The 'eurocentric' system of university education has been hampering universities in these countries in releasing endogenous creativity and seeking their own cultural roots. There is, however, a tension between the orientation toward indigenous values and problems, on the one hand, and addressing global problems, on the other,...(p.174).

Realizing this, and coupled with the political expediency to restructure the Malaysian society after the 1969 racial riots, as well the need for nation-building as part of the decolonization process, the development of a national model of university education was found to be necessary.

Since the basic features that the Malaysian universities inherited from the British inhibited them from being relevant and nationally oriented, the Malaysian universities were unable to fully integrate themselves into the national development milieu (Selvaratnam, 1989). Selvaratnam further concludes that:

> Political expediency therefore necessitated the state's direct intervention, in order to

> precipitate drastic changes in the structure, role and functions of Malaysian universities so as to enable them not only to reflect national aspirations but also to cope in terms of their relevance to the national development. (Selvaratnam, 1989, p 203).

It can be said that the 1969 racial riots were the watershed in the history of independent Malaysia, for the aftermath of this event was a radical departure from the country's established political, economic, cultural and educational policies. Immediately after the incident, parliamentary democracy was temporarily suspended and the country came under the control of a National Operations Council (NOC).

The Universities and University Colleges Act was passed in 1971 to legalize political and administrative control of the universities by the state. Under the terms of this Act, no university can be established in Malaysia unless deemed in the national interest. The 1975 amendments to the Act provided for more government representations on University Councils, thus further strengthen the government's link and control of the country's universities (Selvaratnam, 1989). In this way the government was able to better ensure that the universities conformed to national policies. It also can monitor and coordinate the overall university development in line with the economic and higher education policies of the country. The philosophy behind this is that university education should be in harmony with national aspirations. The government contended that it had to modify the structure of the universities and gear their operations in a direction congruent with the needs and expectations of the people. In order that these constitutional amendments, which meant considerable curtailment of the autonomy of the universities, would not lead to a demoralization of the academics and their standards and ultimately a severe 'brain-drain', the government assured the universities that they "can pursue their own academic ways so long as they do not contradict the national objectives" (Selvaratnam, 1989, p 200).

The indigenization of the Malaysian universities was further accelerated through the gradual introduction of *Bahasa Malaysia,* (the national language, Malay) as the medium of instruction in the universities. Malay replaced English as the main medium of instruction in all institutes of higher learning in 1983. The switch over from English to *Bahasa Malaysia* was considered as an integral part of the overall national educational policy aimed at enhancing the national unity of the multi-ethnic Malaysian society. It was felt that the usage of *Bahasa Malaysia* as the medium of instruction would initiate the impetus to develop an indigenous knowledge-culture through university research and teaching.

Selvaratnam (1989) observes that the universities have since designed and conducted various courses and research programs which are said to be more relevant to the national needs. The academics in the social and applied sciences in Malaysian universities are moving towards problem-oriented research with particular emphasis on local problems, suggesting that the universities in Malaysia are already accommodating national interests.

Selvaratnam (1989) quoted the following official justification for the introduction of these changes and for moving the system towards a strong state coordinated system:

> The new philosophy of the universities in Malaysia therefore departs from the ivory tower concept of yesterday. While it may be time that innovative ideas and a critical examination of the government's policies and performances may contribute towards change, the NEP places the major responsibility on the government and its machinery (universities included) to steer the direction of development towards the targets as set under the NEP. In short, the universities are expected to play a role not merely as agents for change, but also as agents of change. (p. 201).

The stark reality is that education should be in harmony with the national aspirations of the country, particularly because the government finances more than 90% of the annual budget of each university in the country.

The Universities and University Colleges Act of 1971 and its Amendments of 1975, and the philosophy underlying the NEP precipitated a process of transformation in Malaysia's university education system by which it is moving from a metropolitan model towards a more national model that is highly state-regulated. In other words, the university education system in Malaysia underwent a process of "indigenization" to meet national objectives, thus enabling the state to carry out efficiently the balancing act between establishing legitimation and ensuring capital accumulation in the way that is required by the socio-economic and political development agenda. This is seen to be particularly crucial especially now when the country's economic transition is in the making, from a manufacturing-oriented economy towards one that is based on more technology-intensive industries requiring the cooperation of university research.

The Expansion of Higher Education

Soon after Malaya attained independence in 1957, the University of Malaya was set up in Kuala Lumpur in 1962 to meet the increasing demand for trained manpower both as a result of a "Malayanisation" policy designed to replace expatriates with local nationals as well as to meet manpower requirement needed by the expanding public and private sectors (Selvaratnam, 1989). It was only after the 1969 racial riots that the promotion of social integration and national unity became an important objective of higher education. In recognition of the fact that higher education has an important role in restructuring society, the government invested heavily in the development and expansion of higher education. The budget allocation for the expansion of tertiary education for the period, 1986-1995 is shown in Appendix B.

The university education system of Malaysia underwent a period of rapid expansion, beginning in 1969, with the establishment of the Science University of Malaysia (USM). In the following year, The National University of Malaysia (UKM) was also established. Almost at the same time, two colleges were upgraded to university status, namely the Agriculture University of Malaysia (UPM) and the University of Technology Malaysia (UTM). In short, Malaysia, which had only one university in 1962, saw four new universities added within the span of four years (1969-1972). Since the 1980s, four new universities were set up - the Northern University of Malaysia (UUM) and the International Islamic University (UIA), University Malaysia Sarawak (UMAS) and the recent University Malaysia Sabah (UMS). Hence, today, there is a total of nine universities in Malaysia.

In 1985, the total student population in the universities which was close to 38,000 (out of the total population of about 16 million) and this figure rose in 1990 to over 60,000 (out of a population of over 18 million). In 1995, the student population is approaching 90, 000, an increase of 49% since 1990 (Sixth Malaysia Plan: 1991-1995).

This expansion is in line with the objectives of the current national development Plan which clearly states that human resource development is the major thrust as "the achievement of socio-economic development of the country depends on the availability of educated, skilled and trainable labour force" (Sixth Malaysia Plan: 1991-1995, p. 157).

Current Context in Malaysia

Economic development through modernization and industrialization programs in Malaysia is a rather recent phenomenon and, according to Lee (1992), it does not follow the historical trajectory of industrialization in the western democracies. An analysis of its development must be considered in the context of its colonial history; the colonial institutions and the social, economic and political structures inherited from the British colonial period provide the context. Context both enables and constrains the opportunities for social change.

Development in Malaysia must be studied as the outcome of a complex interplay between ethnic nationalism, international markets, its unique class formation, inter-ethnic competition and conflicts (Hua, 1983; Lee, 1992). Bourgeois formation in Malaysia is still in its infancy and the bourgeois culture is deeply divided by ethnicity and intricately linked to state policies (Lee, 1992). Under state industrialism, notions of Malay sovereignty (a legacy of colonialism) and Malay hegemony are promoted under the state ideology of "*Bumiputraism*" which was created in 1970 to assert Malay indigenousness and its undisputed Malay hegemony. *Bumiputraism* is also used for the purpose of justifying development policies in favor of Malay capitalism (Lee, 1991, Sundaram, 1986). This has produced inter-ethnic tensions and conflicts.

The NEP, the blueprint for development during the 1970s and 1980s and its progeny, the New Development Plan (NDP) formulated in the 1990s, are important examples of these state development policies. The contemporary crisis in Malaysia centers on the growing power and authoritarian character of the state; the most profound impact of this power has been the rise of state monopoly capitalism in which the state, as protector of Malay sovereignty, assumes simultaneously the role of chief accumulator and dispenser of national wealth (Sundaram, 1986; Lee, 1992). The state devises economic policies and uses education, particularly higher education as an instrument to reconfigure the capitalist structure of Malaysian society along ethnic lines.

Under these conditions of economic and ideological bonding through *bumiputraism*, and the leadership of the first non-aristocratic Malay Prime Minister (Dr Mahathir) since 1981, a new urban Malay bourgeoisie has become very influential. The commitment to building a modern industrial society under the dominance of private Malay capital constitutes the central vision of Mahathir's leadership (Lee, 1992). This vision defines the long term development path towards achieving the status of a developed society by the year 2020.

The year 1991 has been a significant one for Malaysian politicians, corporate leaders, academics and all those concerned with the future of Malaysia. That year marked the end of the pro-equity development policy, the NEP and the beginning of a new post-NEP era which is defined by various policy documents, namely the Report of the National Economic Consultative Council (NECC), "Malaysia: the Way Forward (Vision 2020)", the Second Outline Perspective Plan, 1991-2000 (OPP2) and the Sixth Malaysia Plan, 1991-1995 (Osman-Rani, 1992).

The NECC was mandated to review the NEP and to draft a new development proposal for the post-NEP period. The accepted recommendations of the NECC have been incorporated in the OPP2 and the Sixth Malaysia Plan. The OPP2 replaced the First Outline Perspective Plan (OPP1) which stretched over the period 1971-1990. The National Development Policy (NDP) under the OPP2 replaced the NEP under the OPP1. The medium-term OPP2, which covers the period 1991-2000 provides the planning framework for the short-term Sixth Malaysia

Plan (1991-1995). Together, the OPP2 and the Sixth Malaysia Plan constitute the instrumental vehicle for the long-term development policy envisaged in Vision 2020.

In sum, Osman-Rani (1992) points out that the NEP will continue to an integral part of Malaysia's current development efforts aimed at achieving the status of a developed nation by 2020. The twin objectives of the NEP, i.e., the eradication of poverty irrespective of race and the restructuring of society to eliminate the identification of race with economic function, will continue to be pursued in the name of national unity. In other words, the objective of NEP will be retained in Vision 2020's concept of a fully developed nation. To this end, since 1991 the country has embarked on an intensive industrialization program in which the government provides a supportive role (Sixth Malaysia Plan).

Osman-Rani (1992) also observes that, since the 1980s, there has been a gradual shift towards greater private sector initiative and a market-driven economy. Since the mid-1980s, deregulation and the liberalizing economic development policies (Sixth Malaysia Plan: 1991-1995), have also permitted the local private colleges to "twin" with foreign universities. Through such twinning, the local students can complete part of their degrees locally in Malaysia and then go abroad for the final two years. This reduces education costs considerably for the parents, and in national terms, it lessen the outflow of the Malaysian currency when parents send their children abroad for university education.

There are also discussions about setting up branch campuses of foreign universities (like the London University) in Kuala Lumpur. Such an idea would be unthinkable ten years ago because it implies that English would have to be sanctioned at the prospective London University offshore campus (Jayasankaran, 1995). Malaysia's majority ethnic Malays are sensitive about anything that might threaten the status of the national language. Indeed, for such a campus to be set up, the current University and University Colleges Act would have to be amended since it does not provide for fully fledged private universities in the country. This shift has been initiated by economic considerations. "We want to develop education as a significant industry... Eventually we want to internationalize it, make it an export industry" says the deputy education minister, Datuk Fong Chan Onn. (Jayasankaran, 1995, p. 44). However, the role of the government will continue to be an important factor in the Malaysian socio-economic discourse. Malaysia is currently enjoying a booming economy with a real gross domestic product growth exceeding 8% over each of the last seven years (Jayasankaran, 1995). The current national development policy, the NDP with its strong pro-growth thrust, has serious implications for the role of the existing state universities in human resource development. Other implications for the university relate to the potential linkage between the university and the private sector (New Straits Times, June 1991) and the changing relationship between the university and the government. Both are having a negative impact on the academics' power and their activities. The situation is exacerbated by competition from the mushrooming of twinning programs in private colleges and the potential establishment of fully fledged private universities. What academic staff in two Malaysian universities perceive as the implications of these emerging trends will be examined in this study, beginning in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

This chapter focuses on the methodological aspects of the research study. It discusses the research design and methodology that were employed in the study. It includes a discussion of the development of the research instruments, the selection of subjects and the procedures of data collection. The statistical treatment of data that is used in the study is also discussed in this chapter.

Research Design

The research problem indicates that the nature of the study is both descriptive and exploratory. It is a descriptive study because the main purpose is to discover the emerging university model in Malaysia at the close of the twentieth century and to describe its relevant characteristics and features. It is also exploratory in that an additional objective of the study is to obtain new insights to direct future research.

Unlike an experimental study, the exploratory-descriptive study does not aim to "test" a theory or a hypothesis. While an exploratory-descriptive study usually begins with some questions derived from theories about the phenomenon, it is not manipulated or controlled in any way, as in the case of experimental research. In other words, the aim of an exploratory-descriptive study is to describe the contemporary social phenomenon in its real-life context by examining it in its natural setting, without manipulating any of the factors in the research environment.

This study, which focuses on the contemporary role of two public-funded universities in Malaysia, uses a case-study approach. The case-study approach is frequently used, especially in international research (Yin, 1989). The particular strength of the case-study approach is that it allows "an investigator to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events" (Yin, 1989, p. 14), whereby the historical specificity and uniqueness of a case is best understood.

Yin (1989) captures the essence of case study research when he defines it as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context using multiple sources of evidence. Through the use of a variety of sources and techniques of data-gathering, such as personal interviews, documents and records, and questionnaires, the case-study approach permits an in-depth study of the case. Hopefully the data obtained from the various sources permit the researcher to put together a holistic picture about that which is being investigated.

Using multiple methods of data collection, often referred to as triangulation, is recommended by many authors (Yin, 1989, Miles and Huberman 1984, Babbie, 1989, Goetz and LeCompte, 1984). Babbie (1989) considers triangulation as a valuable research strategy, stating that "usually, the best study design is one that uses more than one research method taking advantage of their different strengths" (p. 96). Goetz and LeCompte (1984) point out that triangulation permits researchers to offer perspectives other than their own. Generally, triangulation results in an increased understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. Multiple sources of evidence enable the researcher to "get at" the underlying meanings of certain perceptions, for example, and to check for biases when two or more sets of data on the same problem are brought together. Pannu (1972) argues that the "bias check" of data in case studies contributes to the validity of the conclusions and the insights that might result from such studies. Thus, when the research area concerns perceptions, such as in this study, the case study approach offers obvious advantages.

However, case study approach has often been criticized as a weak research strategy. The most serious weakness relates to the problem of "representativeness" of "typicality" of the case studied. This problem is associated with the issue of "generalizability" of the conclusions drawn from a case study. It cannot be denied that the problem of generalizability is endemic to this approach. This is because, as a rule, it cannot be assumed that the institution or setting of the case selected for the study is representative of other similar institutions, since each one has its own history which gives it its unique characteristics. Ironically, precisely because of its uniqueness, a particular institution is often selected as the case for investigation.

Yin (1989) argues that the relevance of the case study approach can easily be defended by virtue of the frequency with which this strategy is being used, particularly in international research. He points out that there are many examples of case studies that are both descriptive and exploratory despite their endemic weakness of not being generalizable. Furthermore, echoing the argument by Lipset et al. (1956), Pannu (1972) points out that:

> the case study approach does permit analysis at two levels: (a)'particularizing' analysis, which focuses on 'description and explanation of the single case, to provide information concerning its present state, and the dynamics through which it continues as it does,' and (b) 'generalizations or theory through the analysis of a single case, using it not to discover anything about it as a system but an empirical basis either for generalizations or theory construction.' (p. 103-104).

In conclusion, despite its inherent limitations, the case-study approach has been adopted. This is because it is particularly appropriate to the exploratory and descriptive nature of this study, which involves an in-depth analysis of perceptions about to the changing role of universities and their relationship to society.

Methodology

Consistent with case-study research in approaching the research problem from multiple data sources, three main sources of evidence are used in this study: the survey questionnaire, personal interviews and relevant documents pertinent to the research problem.

To answer the research questions which have been developed to guide the study (see Chapter 1), a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods are used to obtain the needed data for this study. Many authors agree that the general two methods can be used effectively in the same research project (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Because each research method has strengths and weaknesses, certain aspects of a research problem are more appropriately studied by some rather than by others (Babbie, 1984). For example, qualitative methods can yield the intricate details that are difficult to derive from quantitative methods (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). In addition, qualitative methods can be used to gain novel and fresh insights into things about which the researcher has not been aware.

For the reasons discussed above, this exploratory-descriptive case study employed both quantitative as well as qualitative research methods. For the quantitative part, a survey questionnaire was developed to establish the frequency with which academics have particular views about university goals, university relationships with the external agents, and about their role in university governance. As for the qualitative aspect, personal interviews with academics were conducted to obtain further insights and additional views to substantiate the enumerative data as well as to shed new insights on the research problem. Relevant government and university documents were also used to verify the survey and interview data. The data obtained from the various sources were then triangulated.

Development of the Instruments

A survey questionnaire and a semi-structured interview schedule were developed for the study. The development of these instruments is discussed here.

The Survey Questionnaire

As a major part of the survey questionnaire aims to collect data on the perceptions of university goals, the Institutional Goals Inventory (IGI) was adapted for the study. Developed for the Educational Testing Services by Peterson and Uhl in 1972, the IGI is one of the more widely used published instruments for studying institutional goals (Tingsuk, 1983; McNeal, 1982; Charanyanda, 1980; Sikun, 1978). Measuring the beliefs people have about the goals of an institution of higher education, it is a tool to help colleges and universities define or clarify their existing goals and establish priorities among the diverse goals. In this way it helps give proper direction in both their current and future planning. Additionally, the IGI can indicate the degree of consensus among different groups of people involved in a college and university regarding the importance of each of the goals.

Although the IGI is often used as a tool for obtaining the general consensus on university goals, it was considered especially appropriate for the purpose of this study. This is because it not only provides an inventory of different goals and a means of establishing the degree of consensus around each one, in so doing it also reveals the conflict and tension that might exist among academics, as well as between them as a group and other groups interested in university education, regarding which of these goals are being emphasized and which should be emphasized.

The developers of the IGI recognize that the determination of goal priorities and basic institutional policy is inherently a political process involving accommodations to and trade-offs among diverse interests and constituent groups. This process is even more complex in the case of public-funded institutions as opposed to private ones. To facilitate this process, the IGI helps college and university constituents think about present and future directions for the institution.

Since the main part of the survey questionnaire used in this study is an adaptation of the IGI, the original version and the modifications that were made to it are discussed below.

Adaptation of the Institutional Goals Inventory (IGI)

In questionnaire construction and adaptation, it is important to ensure that the items are suitable for the context in which the study is carried out. Accordingly, only fourteen out of the original twenty goal areas contained in the IGI are included in the instrument developed for this study:

OUTCOME GOALS
  Social Egalitarianism
  Social Criticism /Activism

Vocational Preparation
Research
National Needs
Cultural/Aesthetic Awareness
Humanism/Altruism
Academic Development
Intellectual Orientation

PROCESS GOALS

Freedom
Democratic Governance
Climate
Accountability
Autonomy

"Autonomy" was included as an additional process goal area because a major part of the study pertains to the relationship of the university to external agencies, namely the government and the private sector. Some of the goal areas - for example, "meeting local needs" and "public service" - in the original IGI were combined as one, called "national needs" since regional differences are not a factor in Malaysia as the country is very small. Unlike universities in the United States for which the IGI was designed, the universities in Malaysia are national institutions. Also, "traditional religiousness" has been dropped as a goal area because, historically, the universities in Malaysia have not had a religious tradition. The "individual personal development" goal was also excluded because it constitutes more as a very general educational goal rather than one that was specific to university education. Among the process goals, "off-campus learning" was excluded as well because in Malaysia, it is only a recent program innovation about which the views might be premature to assess at this time. Furthermore, it is offered in only one of the two universities selected for the study. "Innovation" and "intellectual/aesthetic environment" were excluded too, as they were considered to be included in the goal "climate". This term is used in preference to "community" to localize it for the context of the study. The adapted goal areas and the goal statements that operationalize these goal areas are contained in Appendix C.

To ensure a shorter questionnaire, three rather than the original four goal statements were used to operationalize each goal area. And some of the goal statements were combined while those that were considered less relevant to the Malaysian context were dropped totally. In the process, only forty-two goal statements were adapted from the original eighty of the IGI.

Furthermore, the wording of the selected goal statements has been modified to ensure appropriateness and clarity for Malaysian respondents. The reliability coefficients for the goal items selected in the final version of the questionnaire is reported in Appendix D.

The goal statements and areas have been selected very carefully to ensure that they were meaningful and appropriate for the Malaysian context. The selection relied mainly on the judgement of the researcher about the relative importance of various goals for the context of the study. The process of identifying or establishing the goal dimensions that are more important and relevant to the contemporary Malaysian context included deliberations with local academics. The long association between these academics and the researcher (who has had over twenty years association with UM, as an assistant registrar first and now as an academic) with the Malaysian universities, facilitated the differentiation of what was valid from what was not. Pelto and Pelto (1978) argue that the assembling of contextual supporting information helps to buttress claims to validity when the latter refers to the degree to which the data collected actually measure or record what they purport to measure. Face validity in terms of content and appropriateness of the final adaption of the IGI as well as its clarity were verified by a few Malaysian academics.

In addition to the questions concerning university goals that were adapted from the IGI, the other items in the survey questionnaire aimed at ascertaining the views of academics about their work, e.g., the balance between teaching and research, their university's involvement with the private sector and the government, their role in goal formulation and university governance, and what they perceived as the major problems and challenges facing their university.

An important consideration in questionnaire construction is that the format of the questionnaire should motivate the subjects to respond. It is presumed that a short questionnaire, with a few open-ended questions, would encourage a greater response rate since it would take less time to respond. To reduce the number of open-ended questions, academics selected at random were interviewed and asked to respond to a set of open-end questions. Their responses were categorized and then used as structured responses to close the questions. Hence, the researcher did not determine a priori answers to these initially open-ended pilot questions.

A pilot test of the questionnaire was then conducted and the instrument was modified accordingly. The final version of the questionnaire, called the Malaysian University Goals Inventory (MUGI) consists of 25 items which are arranged as follows (See Appendix E):

Questions 1 - 12: Profile of the subjects

Questions 13 : Views of academic freedom in research and teaching

Question 14 : Extent of agreement to some statements regarding the participation of the corporate sector and the government in university affairs

Question 15 - 16: Views concerning the importance of selected university goals adapted from the IGI

Question 17 - 21: Views of the role of the academic staff in determining university goals

Question 22 - 23: Views about facilities and government action in the achievement of ideal university goals

Question 24 - 25: Views on the issues, problems and challenges faced by academics and their universities

Of a total of 25 items in the final questionnaire, only the last three were open-ended. Most of the questions merely required a response of a "check" or tick to indicate the degree of agreement or degree of importance to statements, using a rating scale of 1 - 4.

The final version of the questionnaire was translated into *Bahasa Malaysia* (Malay, the national language of Malaysia). Having the questionnaire in two language versions provided the opportunity for respondents to use the language with which they were most comfortable. The assistance of two academics (from the Language Department of the Faculty of Education, UM) who were proficient in both *Bahasa Malaysia* and English was obtained to ensure that the wording of the questionnaire was equivalent in both languages.

The Interview Schedule

The decision to interview respondents in addition to the use of survey-questionnaire was based on the fact that interviews allow more in-depth exploration and investigation of the research problem. Berg (1989) concurs that the interview is an effective method for collecting additional information, particularly in relation to beliefs, values, attitudes and perceptions of participants in a study such as this one.

In keeping with Berg's (1989) suggestion that the investigator should elicit as much information as possible about the topic under investigation, four types of questions were included in the interview schedule. The essential interview questions used in the study were designed to obtain information about the academics' views on:

(1) the existing and ideal goals of their university.
(2) opportunities for them to participate in shaping the goals of their university;
(3) university autonomy; academic freedom and lifestyle;
(4) the place of humanities vs. science and technology;
(5) the balance between teaching and research;
(6) the balance between pure and applied research;
(7) the university-industry linkage; and
(8) the direction their university is heading, the problems, issues and challenges it is facing, and finally their concerns as academic staff.

Supplementary questions were included to check the reliability of responses to the essential questions. To solicit further information with respect to responses to a given question, probing questions were used. Some "throw-away" questions were also included to establish rapport between the interviewee and interviewer and to cool out when a sensitive area was touched.

A few pilot interviews were conducted to enable the researcher to develop confidence in conducting interviews. The experience suggested that the format of the interview schedule should be left unstructured to allow the researcher to adapt to the situation of the interview as it presents itself and as it progresses. However, it was important to ensure that the questions were clear while caution was exercised to ensure that they were not suggestive, leading, imposing or threatening. The order of the questions was used only as a guide to direct the interview discussion logically and to allow for the elaboration of views.

It was decided that a semi-structured interview schedule was the preferred format. The semi-predetermined questions were intended to probe the subjects' views in a systematic and consistent manner. The researcher believes that the interview schedule should be left to take on a more defined form as the interviewing process progresses and new insights of each interview are noted and presented to subsequent interviewees to obtain their views about these insights. This process encourages the "building up of information" about the research problem, including additional information about study-related issues beyond the questions asked in the interview and the survey questionnaire.

The process of finetuning the interview schedule also helped to fine-tune the survey items as it identified the questions that were best asked through the questionnaire and those which were best taken up by the interview. This attempt at triangulation at this stage was intended to ensure a nice fit between the interview and the survey data.

Research Ethics

Questionnaire respondents was assured anonymity with the hope that this would encourage them to answer the questions as honestly as possible without threat of their identity being revealed. The interviewees also were assured that their names would not be used in the reporting of the interview discussion.

Selection of Subjects

The study focuses on the academics working in *Universiti Malaya* (UM) and *Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia* (UKM). These two universities were selected because they are the larger universities in the country and they offer the most comprehensive range of degree programs. Another reason for the purposive selection of these two universities was to determine whether there is a difference in the perceptions of the academics working in the two different universities.

UM was the first university established in Malaysia and it was originally based on the British colonial model. As mentioned earlier (Chapter 4, p. 101 - 109), the curricula of UM were western in nature, originating from western liberal education. UKM, on the other hand, was established as a national model with curricula that are designed to meet the needs of national development as well the educational aspirations of the Malays and the development of their language. UKM was the first Malaysian university to use Malay, the national language of Malaysia, as a medium of instruction at the tertiary level. Unlike UM, which still retains much of the British university traditional pure disciplines, UKM offers a wide range of practical-oriented programs of studies (much like the US undergraduate programs) which are closely related to national developmental needs. Because UKM was set up for national development with Malay as the medium of instruction, it attracted mainly Malay students and it was staffed to a large extent by Malay academics. The *Bumiputra* academics constitute close to 90 percent of the academic staff of UKM compared to only about 50 percent of them in UM (See Table G4 in Appendix G).

Selection of Respondents for the Survey

As the rate of return of mailed survey questionnaires has been known to be characteristically low, the decision was made to send the questionnaires to all the academics in the two universities. The principle of casting the net widely to catch a "sizeable few" was applied. A total of 1846 questionnaires were sent out to the two universities; (980 to UM and 866 to UKM). This number excluded academics who were on sabbatical or study leave. The registrars' offices indicate that this number usually represents 15% of the total population of academic staff.

Selection of Subjects for Interview

The interviewees were selected from among the academics on the basis of their willingness to be interviewed. The snowball technique was employed in determining the actual number to be interviewed. This means that the final number depended on the appropriateness and "adequacy" of the data obtained as the interview progressed. The rule of thumb that was used to decide when to stop interviewing was when the saturation point was reached; that is, when the researcher was no longer hearing anything new and the research questions had been adequately answered.

When that point was reached, the sample size was deemed to be adequate and appropriate and no further interviews were required. Using this technique and the rule of thumb, 26 academics, thirteen from each university were interviewed for the study. The profile of the sample of interviewees is included in Appendix F.

Data Collection Procedures

The Survey Procedure

The mailing lists of academic staff of UM and UKM were obtained from the registrars' offices to determine the number of questionnaires to be printed. The process of printing and collating the 2000 questionnaires, stamping self-addressed envelopes and addressing took one month. The Vice-Chancellor's letter of permission to conduct the study and to use the Public Relations' Office for the return of the questionnaire was attached to each questionnaire, along with a reply slip seeking permission of the academics to be interviewed. The respondents were requested to return the completed questionnaire and the interview reply slips within two weeks.

The questionnaires were personally delivered to the various faculties of the two universities in January 1994.

A personal approach to meet with the Deans or Deputy Deans of the faculties was made. When both of them were not available, the Assistant Registrar of the faculties were approached. The Malaysian society tends to respond better when they are requested by officers in official positions.

A month later, follow-up letters and personal telephone calls were made to the Deans of all the faculties seeking their cooperation to encourage their staff to respond. In addition, personal telephone calls were made directly to some academics for the same purpose.

Despite the above efforts to secure a good return rate, only 180 questionnaires were returned, representing less than ten percent of the population. After discounting the spoilt questionnaires, only 159 could be used, reducing the rate of return to 8.6 percent. It is recognized that the percentage of completed questionnaires is small, and this has some implications for the generalizability of the findings of the study. Caution therefore is exercised in interpreting the conclusions.

However, the representativeness of the sample of respondents which is a more important factor than its size, is more positive. The profile descriptions of the respondents are presented in Tables G1 to G4 which are contained in Appendix G. Of the 159 responses obtained from the two universities, 85 were from UM and 74 were from UKM, representing 8.7% and 8.5% of the population of the respective universities (Table G2). This shows a rather even distribution of responses between the universities.

Table G3 displays the detailed profile of the survey respondents in relation to the distribution of the total population. When the respondents were categorized by faculty, almost 60 percent were from the Sciences and 40 percent were from the Arts faculties; again a rather equal distribution of responses between the disciplines. But there was a larger proportion of male respondents (74%) than female respondents (almost 26%). This, in fact, is representative of the gender distribution of academics in the two universities. A large majority of the respondents were Malays or *Bumiputras*, especially from UKM which is the national university (Table G4). Again this is representative of the ethnic distribution of the university population. A relatively large proportion of the respondents were professors. This has certain advantages based on the assumption that professors are generally older and they tend to be more mature and frank in their views than their younger counterparts. This is because there is less risk for older academics to be frank as they are usually confirmed in their academic positions and they are also closer to retirement. On the other hand, for the "up-and-coming" younger academics, it may be risky for them to voice their views frankly, especially when these views pertain to a politically sensitive and controversial topic.

Interview Procedure

The interviewees were identified from the reply slips that were returned with the completed questionnaires. Only willing subjects were contacted and time was not wasted in contacting those who were unwilling to share their views. The major problem encountered was the difficulty in establishing contact to set up interview appointments because the working lifestyle of academics is such that they are not easily reached in their offices and the use of telephone answering machines is not common in Malaysia. Also, because I, myself was busy collecting data out in the field at the same time, I too, was difficult to be contacted. However, when appointments were made, they were strictly kept.

Applying Berg's suggestion in interviewing, rapport was first established with the interviewees and permission was then sought to audio-tape the interview. All interviewees, except one agreed to be taped. The interviewees felt assured of the confidentiality of the interview and most shared their views willingly and enthusiastically. The reason for their enthusiasm could be that the interviews were timely as universities were then struggling with the problems related to redefining their roles under the fast-paced economic changes that Malaysia was undergoing. The other reason could be that they were already willing interviewees. Also, most of the interviewees were quite senior in their positions and they seemed to have been reflecting about this topic themselves for a while. Many were very "chatty" as they willingly shared their views.

As the aim of this study is to identify the emerging role of university (within the context of a fast-growing economy of Malaysia) as perceived by the academic participants of the study, the researcher, being an academic herself, is conscious about containing her own views and assumptions during the interviews because they might bias the direction of the discussion. The researcher therefore maintained a low key throughout the interview; listening more than talking to allow the interviewee free expression. In order to stimulate the interviewees to talk, prompting and probing were used as strategies. Additionally, the researcher's attentiveness and responsiveness encouraged the elaboration of views. During the interview, the researcher resisted forming premature assumptions and conclusions while consciously looking out for disconfirming views and counter-intuitive views as well as new ones. To confirm accuracy, the researcher made a point to restate or summarize what was said before proceeding to the next question. This serves also as a probe for the interviewee to further clarify what was already said. The summary also allowed for a better transition to the next question. In summarizing, the researcher tried to connect and pull together and accentuate the contradictions, dissonances, multiple voices, etc. In short, validity-enhancing procedures (suggested by Wolcott, 1990) and the essentials of good fieldwork were consciously adhered to.

The audio-taping was particularly useful. It allowed the researcher to pay full attention to interviewees as note-taking became unnecessary. Furthermore, because they were audio-taped, the interviewees were more careful about being coherent before articulating their views. These advantages of a more focused and efficient interview outweighed the disadvantage of the discomfort of being taped. A little discomfort was felt only at the beginning. As the interview rolled on, the tape recorder was forgotten when the excitement of discussing the topic caught on.

As mentioned earlier, the interview questions were deliberately left as unstructured as possible. They were modified as the interview progressed using the on-line processing technique. The on-line analysis permitted the researcher to reflect on the content and tone of the interview and to pick up new insights for further discussion during the same or subsequent interviews. The on-line processing and analysis techniques also permitted the researcher to maintain research rigor and open-mindedness to allow for shifting focus when the emerging data suggested other issues which are more relevant to the research problem. This strategy to allow for shifting focus is recommended for case study research (Miles and Huberman 1984). Also, the preliminary findings from the immediate analysis of the interview-in-progress were discussed with colleagues to solicit feedback to incorporate in subsequent interviews.

The length of the interviews lasted from half an hour to almost two hours each. Usually a maximum of only two interviews could be conducted in one day; one in the morning and the other after lunch. The taped interview was then processed immediately to capture the tone and nuances of the interview. The interviews of a total of 26 academics spread over a period of two months (late February to mid April 1994).

After each interview, the researcher appealed to the interviewees for cooperation to encourage their colleagues to respond to the survey questionnaire in an attempt to secure more returns.

Data Analysis Process

The survey and the interview were processed and triangulated with information from relevant documents whenever pertinent to clarify the data to answer the research questions. In other words, the research questions direct the data analysis.

The Survey Data

The data from the returned survey questionnaires were inspected for completeness before they were subjected to statistical treatment. The statistical treatment of the survey data on university goals (question 15 and 16 in the survey questionnaire) that is used in the study is based on suggestions contained in the Guide for Using the IGI (Peterson and Uhl, 1977) as the goal questions in the survey questionnaire were adapted from the published instrument. Accordingly, statistics such as means, standard deviations, t-tests and Spearman rank-order correlation coefficients were derived for the scores on the four-point Likert scales. These responses are treated as quasi-interval data. Although attitudinal and opinion scales are technically ordinal scales, they are often treated as quasi-interval for purpose of statistical analysis to compute means, standard deviations, t-tests and rank correlations. Indeed, many researchers treat such scales as interval data (Walsh, 1990).

The mean responses of the three goal statements which comprise a goal area were averaged to obtain the mean score for each of the fourteen goal areas to indicate the perceptions of the academics about both its current and preferred importance. The mean scores range from 1.0 for "not important", 2.0 for "fairly important", 3.0 for "important", to 4.0 for "very important". Hence, the higher the score, the more important a goal was perceived to be in terms of current and preferred importance.

Standard deviations of the mean scores of goals were computed to indicate the degree to which a group agrees on the importance of each goal. The lower the standard deviation, the greater the agreement to the mean rating, and vice versa. The mean scores and their standard deviations were used to describe the academics' perceptions in terms of each goal area's current and preferred emphasis.

For comparing goal perceptions, t-tests were computed. Grouped t-tests were used for inter-group comparison, i.e., to indicate whether there was a significant difference between the two groups of academics from the two universities in the study. But for comparing whether there was a significant difference between the current and preferred perceptions of each goal within each of the two groups separately, paired t-tests were used.

The mean scores of goal ratings were also used for ranking the goals in terms of their current and preferred importance according to the academics' perceptions. The Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient is employed to indicate the strength and direction of the relationship between the goal rankings of the two groups of academics. The coefficient value ranges from -1 to +1. A coefficient value of -1 indicates the two rankings are in reverse order while a value of +1 indicates an identical ranking order. A coefficient value of 0 indicates that there is no relationship between the two ranking orders.

Other statistics, mainly frequency counts, percentages and chi-squares analyses were employed in analyzing the other survey data that pertain to the rest of the research questions in the study. Chi-squares tests were used to indicate whether there is any significant relationship between academics' institutional affiliation and their views about the relationship of the university to the government and to the private sector. For example, a non-significant chi-square analysis indicates that the view is independent of university affiliation of the academics, meaning that a certain view is held irrespective of the place of work. Conversely, a significant chi-square test indicates that the view is associated with the place of work.

Processing of the Interview Data

An impressionistic summary of each interview was quickly jotted down immediately after each interview. The tone and nuances of the expressed views were best captured when the interview discussion was still fresh in the researcher's mind. Immediacy of analysis is a critical factor to avoid problems related to data overload and confusion. These summary field-notes were important at the final data analysis stage when the notes were reviewed, confirmed and expanded when the taped interviews were played back. The researcher was able to benefit from a sense of "intimacy" in the analysis of the interview data because all the interviews were personally conducted.

In processing the interview data, the researcher was constantly aware of the importance of maintaining an open-mind to the expressed views and to resist being influenced by her own views and assumptions. As the interview data were sorted and sifted, a pattern of the views began to emerge. Attention was then directed at identifying disconfirming views and different perspectives.

Reflections on the Research Process

Data collection, especially from academics, proved to be formidable particularly for a neophyte researcher. The low response rate for the survey questionnaire, although expected, was nevertheless disappointing because I had taken all possible measures to secure a good return rate. However, I must admit that the fieldwork was most pleasant as the administration of the two universities as well as the interviewees were very cooperative.

The interviews were particularly pleasant and rewarding. I had expected problems in interviewing, but to the contrary, I found the interviewees to be very cooperative and enthusiastic in sharing their views. The interview process itself was a powerful tool for raising the consciousness of the interviewees, including myself, in the examination of the research problem and its related issues from different perspectives. Additionally, the interviewees gave a voice and a face to the voiceless and impersonal survey data. Hence, the interview discussions enabled me to make more sense and meanings out of the findings that emerged from the survey data. Consequently, I became more confident about the survey findings despite the low return rate of the survey questionnaire. Furthermore, because I had personally conducted all the interviews myself, I enjoyed the sense of "intimately knowing" the data obtained. Hence, I was able to discuss convincingly about the findings of this study which are reported in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

This chapter presents the findings of the study based on the data obtained mainly from the survey questionnaire and the interviews. The questionnaire was completed by 159 academic staff of two universities in Malaysia, namely the University of Malaya (UM) and the National University of Malaysia (UKM). These respondents represent about 8 percent of the total population of academics who were working in the two universities at the time the data were gathered. Personal interviews were conducted subsequently with 26 of these respondents. A description of the survey and interview instruments, including the analytical procedures were provided in Chapter 5. This chapter reports the findings which are triangulated with information from relevant documents, such as government development plans, university policies and annual reports which were pertinent to the six research questions of the study.

Organization of the Chapter

The chapter begins with the discussion of the findings which relate to perceptions of university goals. The quantitative data on university goals are obtained from the section of the survey questionnaire (Question items 15 and 16) which contains the IGI adaptations. Discussion of the survey findings on goals is then further elaborated with relevant interview data to answer the first three research questions dealing with university goal perceptions.

Unlike these first three research questions which are intertwined so closely that they have to be addressed together, the remaining three research questions are answered separately. It is worth reiterating that the fourth research question relates to views about the relationship of the university to the government and to the private sector; while the fifth concerns the issue of professional autonomy; and the sixth addresses the major current problems and challenges faced by the academics and the universities. Each of these research questions is answered separately, first with a discussion of the quantitative data from the survey questionnaire which is then elaborated using information drawn from the interview data.

Goal Perceptions

Underlying the goal questions is the issue of the match or mismatch between 'what is' and 'what should be' the goals of UM and UKM in the opinion of their academic staff. In other words, what goals do these academics in UM and UKM perceive their institutions to be currently emphasizing, and what goals do they believe should be emphasized?

The respondents were asked to rate the degree of importance of each of the 42 goal statements on a four-point scale, ranging from "not important" to "very important". Each goal statement was asked in this fashion twice. The forty-two goal statements (Appendix C) operationalize the following outcome and process goals:

OUTCOME GOALS

- Social Egalitarianism
- Social Criticism /Activism
- Vocational Preparation
- Research
- National Needs
- Cultural/Aesthetic Awareness
- Humanism/Altruism
- Academic Development
- Intellectual Orientation

PROCESS GOALS

- Freedom
- Democratic Governance
- Climate

Accountability

Autonomy

To reiterate, outcome goals are those which are 'ends' which the university seeks to realize, whereas process goals are those which facilitate the attainment of those ends.

WHAT GOALS DO ACADEMIC STAFF OF UM AND UKM PERCEIVE TO BE CURRENTLY EMPHASIZED BY THEIR UNIVERSITIES?

As a group, the total of 159 respondents in the study perceived that their respective universities tend to emphasize outcome goals over process goals. This is indicated in Table 1 which shows that the overall rating for the outcome goal category (2.501) was significantly greater than that for the process goal category (2.265). There is greater agreement among the respondents about the rating of the outcome goals than the process goals, as indicated by their smaller standard deviations.

When the responses of UM and UKM academics were analyzed as separate groups, the results showed that the two groups shared the perception i.e., their universities were currently emphasizing outcome goals more than process goals. However, the difference between outcome and process goal ratings was statistically significant for UM, but not for

UKM. This implies that UM academics perceived that compared to outcome goals, process goals were significantly less emphasized by their university.

TABLE 1

RATINGS FOR CURRENT GOAL CATEGORIES BY UM AND UKM ACADEMICS

UNIVERSITY	N	OUTCOME GOALS MEAN SCORE	OUTCOME GOALS SD	PROCESS GOALS MEAN SCORE	PROCESS GOALS SD	t-VALUE
UM	85	2.294	0.61	1.965	0.65	5.01 *
UKM	74	2.701	0.53	2.555	0.62	2.62 NS
TOTAL	159	2.501	0.60	2.265	0.70	5.40*

KEY

Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:

Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

* = significant at $p < 0.05$
NS = Not Significant

Current Importance of the Fourteen Selected Goals

A detailed analysis of the fourteen specific goals, both outcome and process, is presented in Tables 2 to 4. These tables display the ratings and rankings of the current importance of each of these goals; first according to the perceptions of all the respondents, followed by a comparison of the goal ratings and ranking by university groups. A summary of these tables is presented graphically in Figure 1.

Current Goal Perceptions of All Respondents

When the goal ratings of all respondents were rank-ordered, the first six most important goals in the current ranking list were outcome goals (Table 2). Most of the low ranking positions were occupied by process goals. The only outcome goal which occupied a low position in the list was cultural awareness. National needs, vocational preparation and academic development were perceived to be the three most important current goals emphasized by their universities, while the least important were democratic governance and climate, both of which are process goals. The current ratings range from mean scores of 2.029 to 2.717, indicating that all the respondents perceived that the current emphasis accorded to goals were only "fairly important".

TABLE 2

RATINGS AND RANKING OF CURRENT GOALS BY TOTAL RESPONDENTS

GOALS	CURRENT RATINGS		RANK
	MEAN SCORE	SD	
OUTCOME GOALS:			
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.246	0.77	9
SOCIAL CRITICISM	2.411	0.85	6
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	2.645	0.77	2
NATIONAL NEEDS	2.717	0.74	1
RESEARCH	2.530	0.63	4
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	2.379	0.87	8
CULTURAL AWARENESS	2.182	0.79	12
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	2.577	0.71	3
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	2.426	0.90	5
PROCESS GOALS:			
FREEDOM	2.207	0.83	11
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	2.029	0.83	14
CLIMATE	2.163	0.93	13
ACCOUNTABILITY	2.392	0.71	7
AUTONOMY	2.215	0.81	10

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

Rank : 1 represents the most important goal while
14 represents the least important goal.

Current Goal Perceptions by University

The responses of the academics of UM and UKM as separate groups are presented in Table 3 for comparison purposes. The t-test analyses in Table 3 indicate that UKM's ratings are significantly higher than UM for *all* the goals at $p < 0.05$, implying that the UKM academics perceived that their university was currently emphasizing all the goals at a higher level of importance than their counterparts in UM.

In terms of goal ranking, a high rank-order correlation was observed between the two universities. The coefficient value of 0.711 was significant at $p < 0.05$ (Table 4). This indicates that the two groups of academics are quite similar in their perceptions of the current goal priorities assigned by their universities. Both groups share the same perceptions that the top two goals currently emphasized by their universities were national needs and vocational preparation. But they differ rather sharply in the ranking of the third priority. In UKM, the third place was assigned to Humanism/Altruism, which UM relegated to the ninth position. UM academics, in constrast, ranked academic development third in priority; this was ranked seventh by UKM. However, there is agreement between the two groups of academics that democratic governance is the least emphasized goal currently.

TABLE 3

t-TEST COMPARISON OF CURRENT GOAL RATINGS BY UM AND UKM RESPONDENTS

GOALS	UM		UKM		
	MEAN SCORE	SD	MEAN SCORE	SD	t-VALUE
OUTCOME GOALS:					
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.061	0.79	2.449	0.71	-3.12*
SOCIAL CRITICISM	2.216	0.90	2.635	0.73	-3.03*
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	2.457	0.70	2.848	0.79	-3.11*
NATIONAL NEEDS	2.523	0.77	2.941	0.64	-3.59*
RESEARCH	2.360	0.61	2.716	0.60	-3.49*
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	2.009	0.79	2.797	0.76	-6.18*
CULTURAL AWARENESS	2.004	0.75	2.377	0.80	-2.88*
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	2.455	0.76	2.709	0.63	-2.23*
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	2.144	0.88	2.749	0.82	-4.32*
PROCESS GOALS:					
FREEDOM	1.983	0.78	2.454	0.81	-3.56*
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	1.744	0.77	2.353	0.77	-4.77*
CLIMATE	1.893	0.87	2.468	0.91	-3.91*
ACCOUNTABILITY	2.064	0.57	2.754	0.67	-6.77*
AUTONOMY	1.866	0.68	2.611	0.75	-6.10*

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

TABLE 4

RANKING OF CURRENT GOALS BY UM AND UKM RESPONDENTS

GOALS	UM		UKM	
	MEAN SCORE	RANK	MEAN SCORE	RANK
OUTCOME GOALS:				
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.061	7	2.499	12
SOCIAL CRITICISM	2.216	5	2.635	8
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	2.457	2	2.848	2
NATIONAL NEEDS	2.523	1	2.941	1
RESEARCH	2.360	4	2.716	6
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	2.009	9	2.797	3
CULTURAL AWARENESS	2.004	10	2.377	13
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	2.455	3	2.709	7
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	2.144	6	2.749	5
PROCESS GOALS:				
FREEDOM	1.983	11	2.454	11
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	1.744	14	2.353	14
CLIMATE	1.893	12	2.468	10
ACCOUNTABILITY	2.046	8	2.754	4
AUTONOMY	1.866	13	2.611	9

Spearman Rank-order correlation coefficient = 0.711, significant at $p<0.05$.

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

Rank : 1 represents the most important goal while
14 represents the least important goal.

Other differences between the two universities in terms of their perceptions of the current goal priorities deserve some mention. As Table 4 reveals, the process goals of accountability and autonomy are higher in UKM than UM. Another difference is in the priority given to social goals. UKM respondents accorded social criticism and social egalitarianism relatively low priority (rank-ordered eighth and twelfth respectively) while the UM sample members give them medium priority (ranked fifth and seventh respectively).

Summary of Findings Re Current Goal Perceptions

The current goal perceptions are captured graphically in Figure 1. The high rating and ranking of the national needs and vocational preparation goals clearly suggest that the current emphasis of the two universities is on the more utilitarian aspects of university education. Also, the accountability goal is ranked fourth in current priority by UKM academics (Table 4). The socially-oriented goals, such as social criticism and social egalitarianism, are perceived to be given medium priority. The process goals of democratic governance, freedom and climate are perceived to be among the lowest in current priority of both the universities. How importantly should these goals be emphasized is addressed in the next research question.

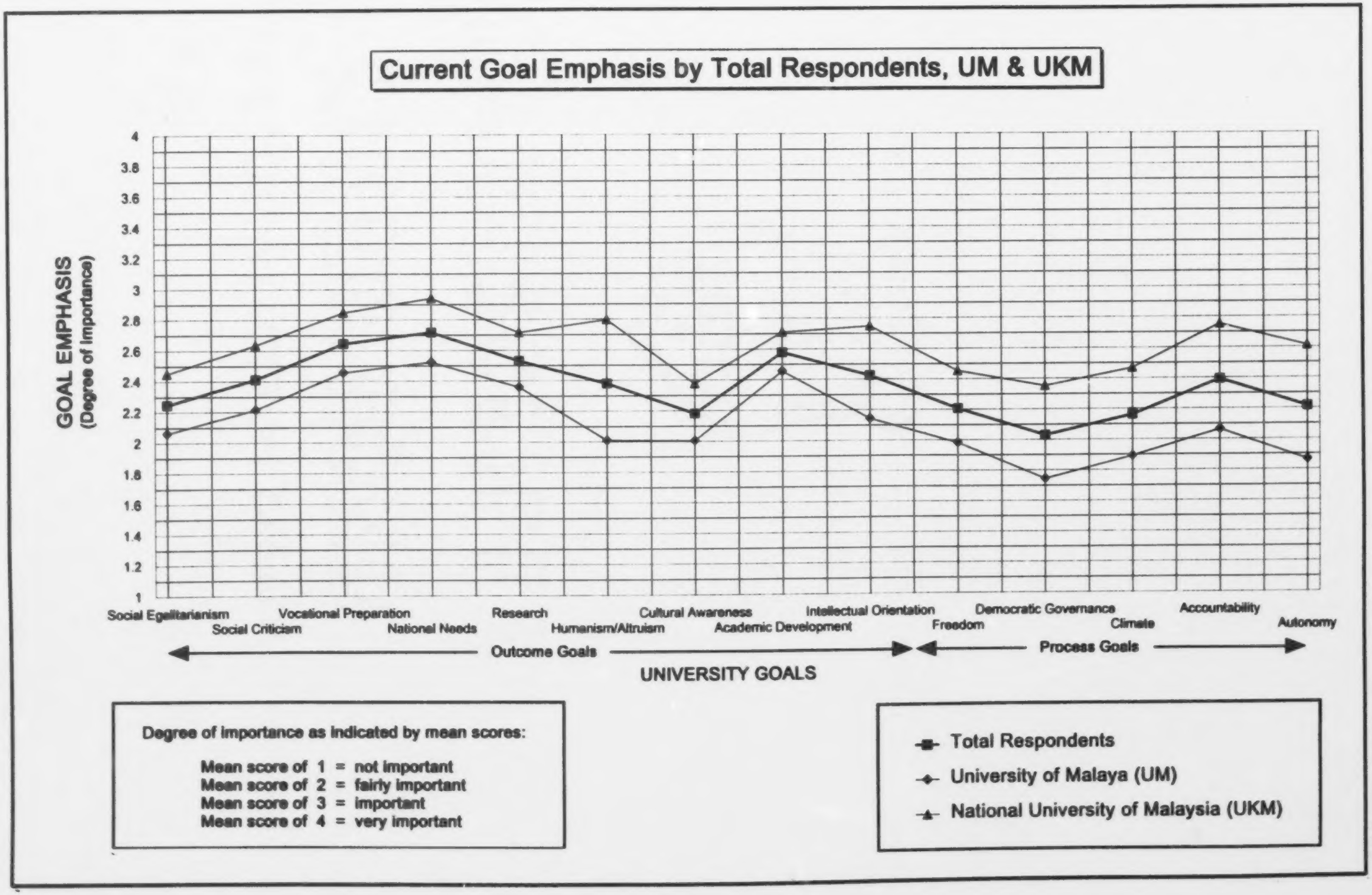

Current Goal Emphasis by Total Respondents, UM & UKM
GOAL EMPHASIS
(Degree of Importance)
4
3.8
3.6
3.4
3.2
3
2.8
2.6
2.4
2.2
2
1.8
1.6
1.4
1.2
1
Social Egalitarianism
Social Criticism
Vocational Preparation
National Needs
Research
Humanism/Altruism
Cultural Awareness
Academic Development
Intellectual Orientation
Freedom
Democratic Governance
Climate
Accountability
Autonomy
Outcome Goals
Process Goals
UNIVERSITY GOALS
Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important
Total Respondents
University of Malaya (UM)
National University of Malaysia (UKM)

Figure 1

WHAT IS THEIR PREFERRED EMPHASIS IN UNIVERSITY GOALS?

The survey questionnaire also sought the perceptions of the academics regarding their preferred university goals. An examination of Table 5 indicates that the total respondents in the study perceived that their universities should emphasize process goals as much as, if not more than, outcome goals. This is indicated by the high ratings of 3.463 and 3.407 for process and outcome goals respectively. The same table also shows that UKM's ratings are higher than UM's for both categories of goals.

TABLE 5

RATINGS FOR PREFERRED GOAL CATEGORIES BY UM AND UKM RESPONDENTS

UNIVERSITY	GOAL CATEGORIES				
	OUTCOME GOALS		PROCESS GOALS		
	MEAN SCORE	SD	MEAN SCORE	SD	t-VALUES
UM	3.343	0.36	3.416	0.38	-1.62 NS
UKM	3.476	0.31	3.514	0.33	-0.99 NS
TOTAL	3.407	0.34	3.463	0.36	-1.89 NS

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important
* = significant at $p < 0.05$
NS = Not significant

Preferred Importance of the Fourteen Selected Goals

The preferred importance of each of the fourteen goals is shown in Tables 6 to 8. The tables present the ratings and rankings of these goals as perceived by all respondents as well as the comparison between universities. The patterns of these perceptions are displayed graphically in Figure 2.

Preferred Goal Perceptions of All Respondents

Table 6 shows that all the respondents identified intellectual orientation, climate and humanism as the three goals that should received the most emphasis. The lowest ranked three goals are the outcome goals of cultural awareness, research and social egalitarianism. The respondents also give lower priority to the process goals of autonomy and accountability (rank-ordered tenth and eleventh respectively). Yet they perceive that all the fourteen goals should be accorded important emphasis, as indicated by the high mean scores ranging from 2.985 to 3.731.

TABLE 6

RATINGS AND RANKING OF PREFERRED GOALS BY TOTAL RESPONDENTS

GOALS	PREFERRED RATINGS		
	MEAN SCORE	SD	RANK
OUTCOME GOALS:			
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.985	0.63	14
SOCIAL CRITICISM	3.525	0.50	5
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	3.541	0.54	4
NATIONAL NEEDS	3.401	0.54	9
RESEARCH	3.155	0.54	13
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	3.598	0.50	3
CULTURAL AWARENESS	3.184	0.70	12
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	3.403	0.54	8
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	3.731	0.43	1
PROCESS GOALS:			
FREEDOM	3.406	0.59	7
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	3.515	0.51	6
CLIMATE	3.729	0.44	2
ACCOUNTABILITY	3.247	0.59	11
AUTONOMY	3.299	0.59	10

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

Rank : 1 represents the most important goal while 14 represents the least important goal.

Preferred Goal Perceptions by University

The figures in Table 7 reveal that all goals but one (cultural awareness) are rated higher by UKM academics than by their UM counterparts in terms of preferred importance. It is worth noting that the differences in the preferred ratings between the two universities are significant at $p < 0.05$ for the following five goals: national needs, vocational preparation, social egalitarianism, autonomy and accountability.

When the ratings are rank-ordered, a remarkably high correlation between the two groups' preferred goals rankings is observed. An almost perfect correlation is indicated by the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient value of 0.903 which is significant at $p < 0.05$ (Table 8). In other words, the two groups of academics prioritize their preferred goals almost identically. They agree that the top three goals should be climate, intellectual orientation and humanism. They also agree that social egalitarianism, research, cultural awareness and accountability should be relatively less important. However, they differ in their ranking of two process goals. UM academics perceive freedom as more important than autonomy while their UKM counterparts perceive them in the reverse order. The other goals occupy almost similar middle positions in the two lists.

TABLE 7

t-TEST COMPARISON OF PREFERRED GOAL RATINGS BY UM AND UKM RESPONDENTS

GOALS	**UM**		**UKM**		
	MEAN SCORE	**SD**	**MEAN SCORE**	**SD**	**t-VALUE**
OUTCOME GOALS:					
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.883	0.67	3.099	0.57	-2.14*
SOCIAL CRITICISM	3.507	0.50	3.547	0.51	-0.48
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	3.432	0.54	3.662	0.51	-2.68*
NATIONAL NEEDS	3.297	0.55	3.524	0.51	-2.63*
RESEARCH	3.101	0.57	3.214	0.51	-1.28
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	3.537	0.51	3.667	0.48	-1.63
CULTURAL AWARENESS	3.206	0.68	3.160	0.72	0.41
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	3.377	0.53	3.431	0.55	-0.61
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	3.725	0.42	3.737	0.45	-0.17
PROCESS GOALS					
FREEDOM	3.384	0.61	3.429	0.56	-0.48
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	3.502	0.54	3.529	0.48	-0.34
CLIMATE	3.691	0.48	3.772	0.38	-1.16
ACCOUNTABILITY	3.213	0.58	3.282	0.60	-0.70*
AUTONOMY	3.181	0.64	3.436	0.51	-2.69*

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

TABLE 8

RANKING OF PREFERRED GOALS BY UM AND UKM RESPONDENTS

GOALS	UM		UKM	
	MEAN SCORE	RANK	MEAN SCORE	RANK
OUTCOME GOALS:				
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.883	14	3.099	14
SOCIAL CRITICISM	3.507	4	3.547	5
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	3.432	6	3.662	4
NATIONAL NEEDS	3.297	9	3.524	7
RESEARCH	3.101	13	3.214	12
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	3.537	3	3.667	3
CULTURAL AWARENESS	3.206	11	3.160	13
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	3.377	8	3.431	9
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	3.725	1	3.737	2
PROCESS GOALS:				
FREEDOM	3.384	7	3.429	10
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	3.502	5	3.529	6
CLIMATE	3.691	2	3.772	1
ACCOUNTABILITY	3.213	10	3.282	11
AUTONOMY	3.181	12	3.436	8

Spearman Rank Order correlation Coefficient=0.903,
Significant at $p < 0.05$

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

Rank: 1 represents the most important goal while
14 represents the least important.

Summary of Findings Re Preferred Goal Perceptions

To summarize, the data in Tables 5 to 8 are presented graphically in Figure 2 to capture the findings about the perceptions of the academics regarding the preferred emphasis of university goals. The overall perception is that process goals should be emphasized as much as, if not more than, outcome goals.

The respondents identified intellectual orientation, climate and humanism as the three most preferred goals, while their least preferred goals are social egalitarianism, research, cultural awareness and accountability. A similar pattern is evident when the responses are analyzed by university. Interestingly, for the two sub-samples of respondents, there is an almost identical rank order in the case of preferred goals.

In comparing the findings of first and second research questions, the utilitarian goals such as national needs and vocational preparation, which are perceived as the most important current goals, are not the most preferred. Instead, the often-called 'ivory tower' goals, intellectual orientation and humanism are the more important preferred university goals. The process goal of climate, perceived to be assigned low current priority, is regarded as a very important preferred goal (ranked first by UKM and second by UM). The extent of discrepancy between the current and preferred goal emphases is discussed in the next section.

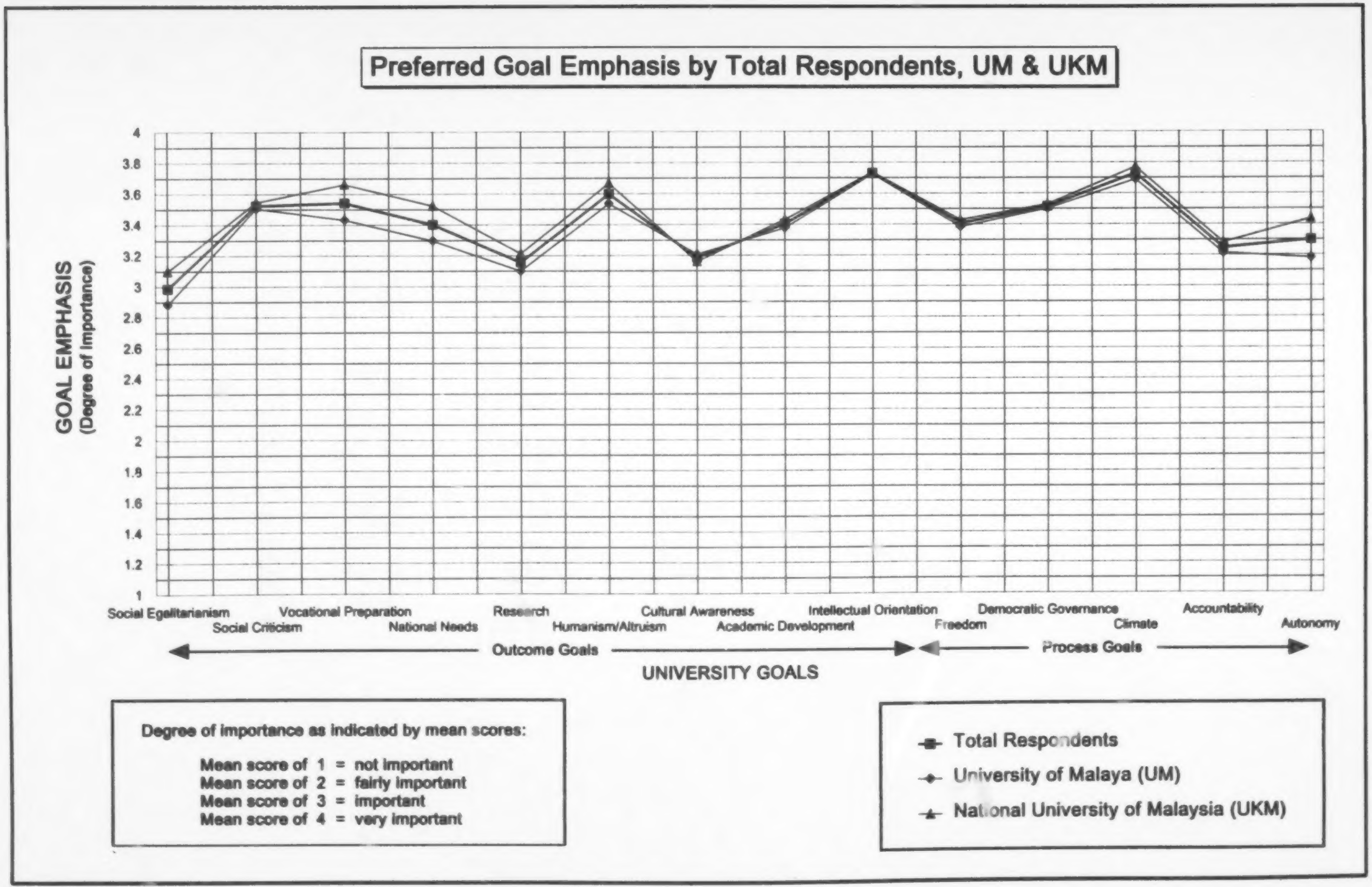

Preferred Goal Emphasis by Total Respondents, UM & UKM
GOAL EMPHASIS
(Degree of Importance)
4
3.8
3.6
3.4
3.2
3
2.8
2.6
2.4
2.2
2
1.8
1.6
1.4
1.2
1
Social Egalitarianism
Social Criticism
Vocational Preparation
National Needs
Research
Humanism/Altruism
Cultural Awareness
Academic Development
Intellectual Orientation
Freedom
Democratic Governance
Climate
Accountability
Autonomy
Outcome Goals
Process Goals
UNIVERSITY GOALS
Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important
Total Respondents
University of Malaya (UM)
National University of Malaysia (UKM)

Figure 2

WHAT IS THE EXTENT OF DISCREPANCY BETWEEN THE CURRENT AND PREFERRED EMPHASIS OF UNIVERSITY GOALS?

All the respondents perceive that the universities are currently doing less than what they should be doing in terms of the emphasis they assigned the goals. This finding is indicated in Table 9 which shows that the overall current goal emphasis (2.377) is less than the preferred emphasis (3.434). In fact, the difference between the overall ratings of the two goal emphases is significant at $p < 0.05$ for both the total respondents and by university.

TABLE 9

t-TEST COMPARISON OF OVERALL CURRENT AND PREFERRED GOAL RATINGS BY UM AND UKM RESPONDENTS

UNIVERSITY	CURRENT EMPHASIS		PREFERRED EMPHASIS		
	MEAN SCORE	SD	MEAN SCORE	SD	t-VALUES
UM	2.129	0.58	3.380	0.32	-15.37*
UKM	2.624	0.54	3.489	0.29	-11.75*
TOTAL	2.377	0.61	3.434	0.31	-18.35*

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

* = significant at $p < 0.05$

Furthermore, a comparison of the standard deviations of the ratings of the two emphases indicate a greater consensus among the respondents about preferred goals. The smaller standard deviations derived for the preferred ratings suggest that the academics are in greater agreement about what goals should be emphasized than about their perceptions of the extent of current goal emphasis. Interestingly, this finding contradicts the general expectation of smaller deviations for IS (current) rating than for SHOULD BE (preferred) rating according to the IGI Guide, "since the former are perceptions of present reality while the latter are personal opinions about the way things ought to be" (Peterson & Uhl, 1977, p. 19).

In other words, the study shows that the academics were less in agreement about their perceptions of the extent of emphasis which is currently accorded to the goals by their universities. This relative lack of agreement in their perceptions of the current goal emphasis can be observed for every one of the fourteen goals. This is shown by the relatively large standard deviations of their mean scores of the current goal ratings, compared to those of the preferred goal ratings (Table 10).

TABLE 10

t-TEST COMPARISON OF CURRENT AND PREFERRED GOAL RATINGS BY TOTAL RESPONDENTS

GOALS	CURRENT		PREFERRED		
	MEAN SCORE	SD	MEAN SCORE	SD	t-VALUE
OUTCOME GOALS:					
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.243	0.78	2.975	0.63	-12.22*
SOCIAL CRITICISM	2.404	0.85	3.521	0.51	-14.47*
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	2.643	0.77	3.538	0.55	-13.13*
NATIONAL NEEDS	2.708	0.74	3.394	0.55	-11.38*
RESEARCH	2.530	0.63	3.154	0.55	-11.11*
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	2.374	0.87	3.598	0.50	-16.06*
CULTURAL AWARENESS	2.182	0.79	3.142	0.70	-13.56*
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	2.555	0.69	3.389	0.54	-15.00*
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	2.402	0.90	3.719	0.44	-16.85*
PROCESS GOALS:					
FREEDOM	2.201	0.83	3.401	0.59	-15.19*
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	2.030	0.83	3.497	0.52	-18.18*
CLIMATE	2.158	0.93	3.717	0.45	-18.60*
ACCOUNTABILITY	2.387	0.71	3.226	0.59	-10.44*
AUTONOMY	2.215	0.81	3.298	0.59	-15.23*

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

Significant at $p < 0.05$

Discrepancy between Current and Preferred Emphases of the Fourteen Selected Goals

All the respondents felt that the universities should be emphasizing **each** of the fourteen goals more than what they were currently doing. This is indicated by the t-test results in Table 10 showing that the ratings of the preferred emphasis are significantly greater than the current emphasis for every one of the fourteen goals at $p < 0.05$. This is also the case when the responses are analyzed separately for each university (Tables 11 and 12). This suggests that the academics of both universities are dissatisfied with the current emphasis given to all the fourteen goals.

The extent of the discrepancy between the current and the preferred emphases of each goal is revealed in Table 13 by the mean gap, i.e., the difference between the mean ratings of the current and preferred emphases. A comparison of the mean gaps offers valuable insights into the question of goal priorities, with implications for policy change and resource reallocation. Universities need to address the goals which have larger mean gaps because the current emphasis on these goals appears to be unsatisfactory vis-avis the preferred level. Conversely, goals with smaller mean gaps are perceived to be satisfactory as their current emphases are closer to the preferred levels.

TABLE 11

t-TEST COMPARISON OF CURRENT AND PREFERRED GOAL RATINGS BY UM RESPONDENTS

GOALS	CURRENT		PREFERRED		
	MEAN SCORE	SD	MEAN SCORE	SD	t-VALUE
OUTCOME GOALS:					
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.053	0.79	2.867	0.66	- 0.72*
SOCIAL CRITICISM	2.201	0.89	3.502	0.51	-11.12*
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	2.449	0.70	3.431	0.55	-10.02*
NATIONAL NEEDS	2.494	0.76	3.286	0.55	- 9.18*
RESEARCH	2.352	0.61	3.101	0.57	- 9.17*
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	1.996	0.79	3.533	0.51	-14.67*
CULTURAL AWARENESS	2.004	0.75	3.169	0.68	-11.38*
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	2.432	0.74	3.365	0.53	-12.20*
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	2.100	0.85	3.714	0.42	-15.08*
PROCESS GOALS:					
FREEDOM	1.969	0.77	3.364	0.62	-12.39*
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	1.744	0.77	3.474	0.55	-16.00*
CLIMATE	1.879	0.87	3.675	0.49	-15.67*
ACCOUNTABILITY	2.024	0.55	3.198	0.58	-11.75*
AUTONOMY	1.867	0.68	3.187	0.63	-13.43*

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

TABLE 12

t-TEST COMPARISON OF CURRENT AND PREFERRED GOAL RATINGS BY UKM RESPONDENTS

GOALS	CURRENT		PREFERRED		
	MEAN SCORE	SD	MEAN SCORE	SD	t-VALUE
OUTCOME GOALS:					
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.449	0.71	3.092	0.56	- 8.89*
SOCIAL CRITICISM	2.635	0.73	3.542	0.51	- 9.92*
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	2.858	0.79	3.652	0.52	- 8.55*
NATIONAL NEEDS	2.955	0.63	3.517	0.52	- 6.92*
RESEARCH	2.727	0.60	3.212	0.52	- 6.63*
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	2.797	0.76	3.672	0.50	- 9.17*
CULTURAL AWARENESS	2.378	0.80	3.113	0.71	- 8.13*
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	2.686	0.63	3.416	0.55	- 9.15*
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	2.745	0.83	3.726	0.45	- 9.76*
PROCESS GOALS:					
FREEDOM	2.454	0.81	3.440	0.56	- 9.37*
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	2.353	0.77	3.522	0.48	-10.52*
CLIMATE	2.469	0.91	3.763	0.39	-11.19*
ACCOUNTABILITY	2.755	0.67	3.255	0.60	- 4.43*
AUTONOMY	2.611	0.76	3.424	0.51	- 8.74*

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

TABLE 13

MEAN GAPS BETWEEN CURRENT AND PREFERRED GOAL RATINGS OF TOTAL RESPONDENTS

GOALS	CURRENT GOAL PRIORITY	PREFERRED GOAL PRIORITY	
	Mean Score	Rank Score	Mean Gap
OUTCOME GOALS:			
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.243	2.975	0.732
SOCIAL CRITICISM	2.404	3.521	1.117
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	2.643	3.538	0.895
NATIONAL NEEDS	2.708	3.394	0.695
RESEARCH	2.530	3.154	0.624
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	2.374	3.598	1.224
CULTURAL AWARENESS	2.182	3.142	0.960
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	2.555	3.389	0.834
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	2.402	3.719	1.317
PROCESS GOALS:			
FREEDOM	2.201	3.401	1.200
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	2.030	3.497	1.467
CLIMATE	2.158	3.717	1.559
ACCOUNTABILITY	2.387	3.226	0.839
AUTONOMY	2.215	3.298	1.083

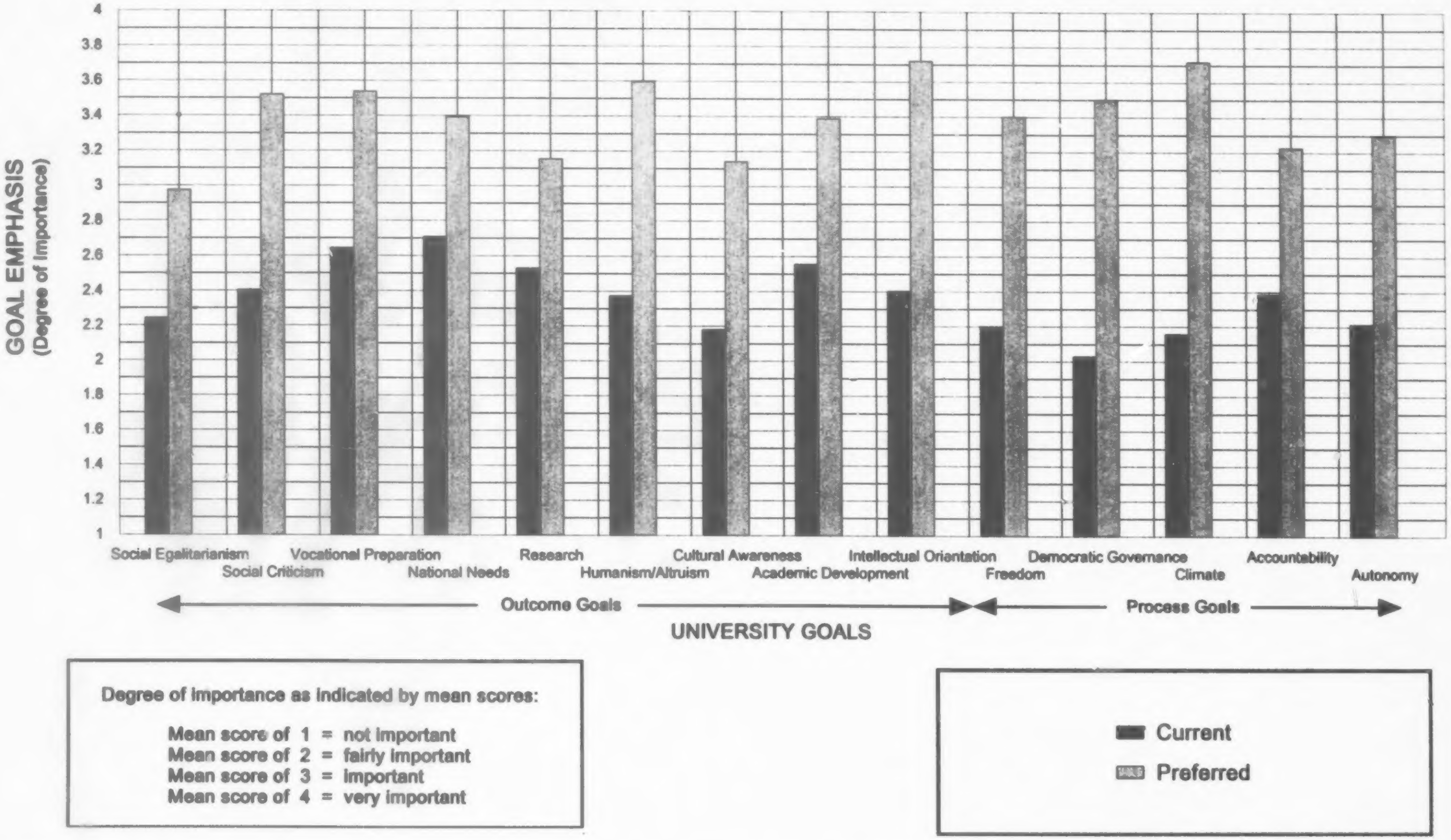
KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

Table 13 shows that the highest mean gaps are found in three process goals (climate, democratic governance and freedom) and two outcome goals (intellectual orientation and humanism/altruism). Thus, the academics perceive that the current emphases of these goals are farthest from their preferred level of importance. On the other hand, the lower mean gaps noted for the outcome goals of research, national needs and social egalitarianism, indicate that the current and preferred emphases of these goals matched closely. The pattern of differential goal emphases of the fourteen goals by the total respondents is presented graphically in Figure 3.

These perceptions were consistent even when the responses were analyzed separately by university (Tables 14 and 15). Climate, democratic governance and intellectual orientation have relatively high mean gaps for both universities. On the other hand, for both groups of academics research, national needs and social egalitarianism have relatively small mean gaps.

It is interesting to note that the mean gaps of all goals were greater for UM than UKM (Table 16). This implies that, compared to UKM staff, UM respondents perceived all the goals as requiring a greater shift in their current emphasis to bring them to the preferred level of emphasis. This also implies that UM academics tend to be more dissatisfied than their UKM counterparts with the current goal emphases. The patterns of the differential in the goal

Current and Preferred Goal Emphasis by Total Respondents



Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:

Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

Figure 3

TABLE 14

MEAN GAPS BETWEEN CURRENT AND PREFERRED GOAL RATINGS BY UM RESPONDENTS

GOALS	CURRENT GOAL PRIORITY	PREFERRED GOAL PRIORITY	
	Mean Score	Mean Score	Mean Gap
OUTCOME GOALS:			
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.053	2.867	0.813
SOCIAL CRITICISM	2.201	3.502	1.301
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	2.449	3.431	0.982
NATIONAL NEEDS	2.494	3.286	0.792
RESEARCH	2.352	3.101	0.749
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	1.996	3.533	1.537
CULTURAL AWARENESS	2.004	3.169	1.165
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	2.432	3.365	0.933
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	2.100	3.714	1.614
PROCESS GOALS:			
FREEDOM	1.969	3.364	1.395
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	1.744	3.474	1.730
CLIMATE	1.879	3.675	1.796
ACCOUNTABILITY	2.024	3.198	1.174
AUTONOMY	1.867	3.187	1.320

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

TABLE 15

MEAN GAPS BETWEEN CURRENT AND PREFERRED GOAL RATINGS BY UKM RESPONDENTS

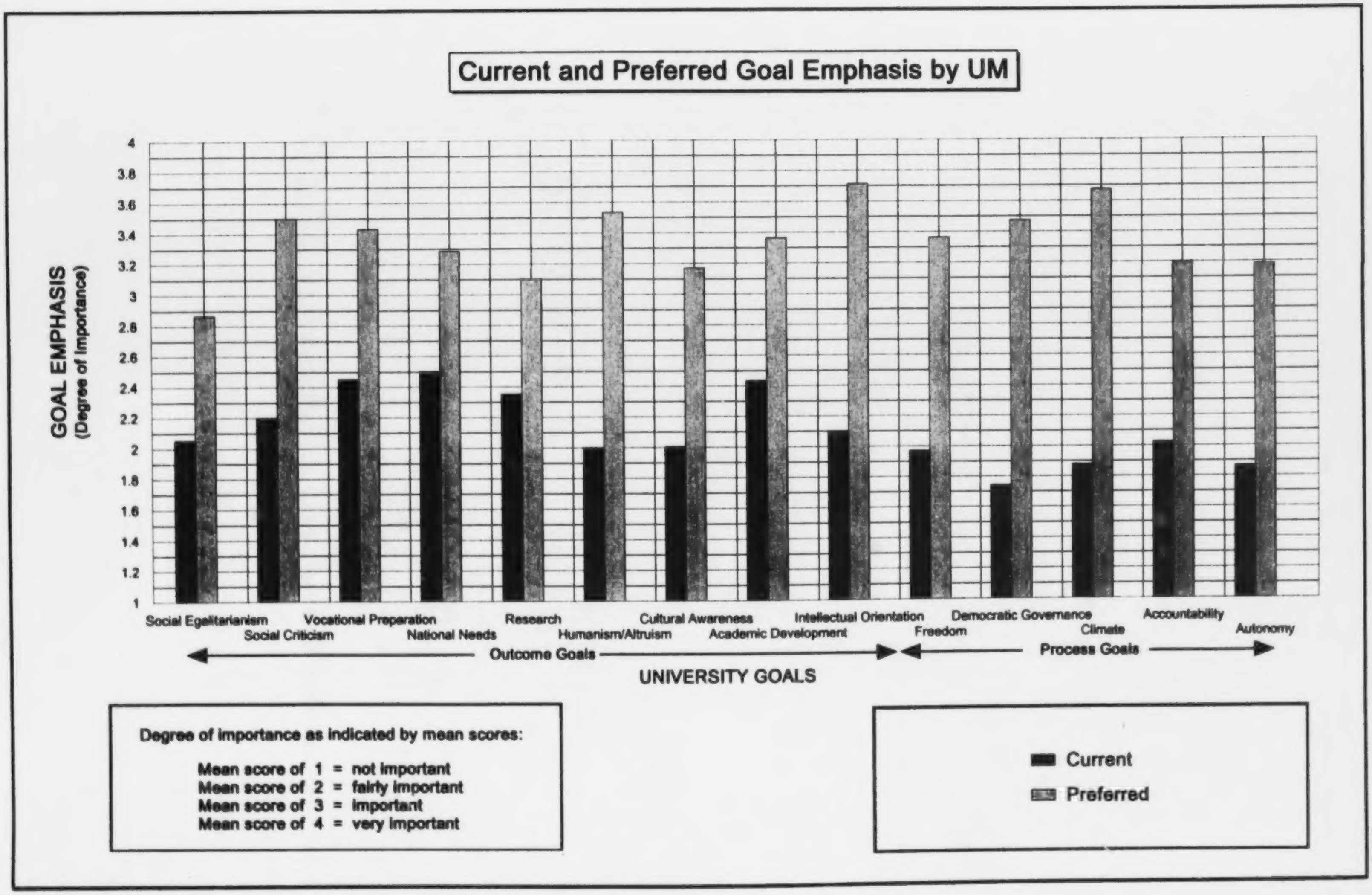
GOALS	CURRENT GOAL PRIORITY	PREFERRED GOAL PRIORITY	
	Mean Score	Mean Score	Mean Gap
OUTCOME GOALS:			
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.449	3.092	0.643
SOCIAL CRITICISM	2.635	3.542	0.907
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	2.848	3.652	0.804
NATIONAL NEEDS	2.955	3.517	0.562
RESEARCH	2.727	3.212	0.485
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	2.797	3.672	0.875
CULTURAL AWARENESS	2.378	3.113	0.735
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	2.686	3.416	0.730
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	2.745	3.726	0.981
PROCESS GOALS:			
FREEDOM	2.454	3.440	0.986
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	2.353	3.522	1.169
CLIMATE	2.469	3.763	1.295
ACCOUNTABILITY	2.755	3.255	0.500
AUTONOMY	2.611	3.424	0.813

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

TABLE 16

COMPARISON OF MEAN GAPS BETWEEN CURRENT AND PREFERRED GOAL RATINGS BY UM AND UKM RESPONDENTS

GOALS	UM MEAN GAP	UKM MEAN GAP
OUTCOME GOALS:		
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	0.813	0.643
SOCIAL CRITICISM	1.301	0.907
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	0.982	0.804
NATIONAL NEEDS	0.792	0.562
RESEARCH	0.749	0.485
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	1.537	0.875
CULTURAL AWARENESS	1.165	0.735
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	0.933	0.730
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	1.614	0.981
PROCESS GOALS:		
FREEDOM	1.395	0.986
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	1.730	1.169
CLIMATE	1.796	1.295
ACCOUNTABILITY	1.174	0.500
AUTONOMY	1.132	0.813



Current and Preferred Goal Emphasis by UM

Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:

Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

Figure 4

Current and Preferred Goal Emphasis by UKM

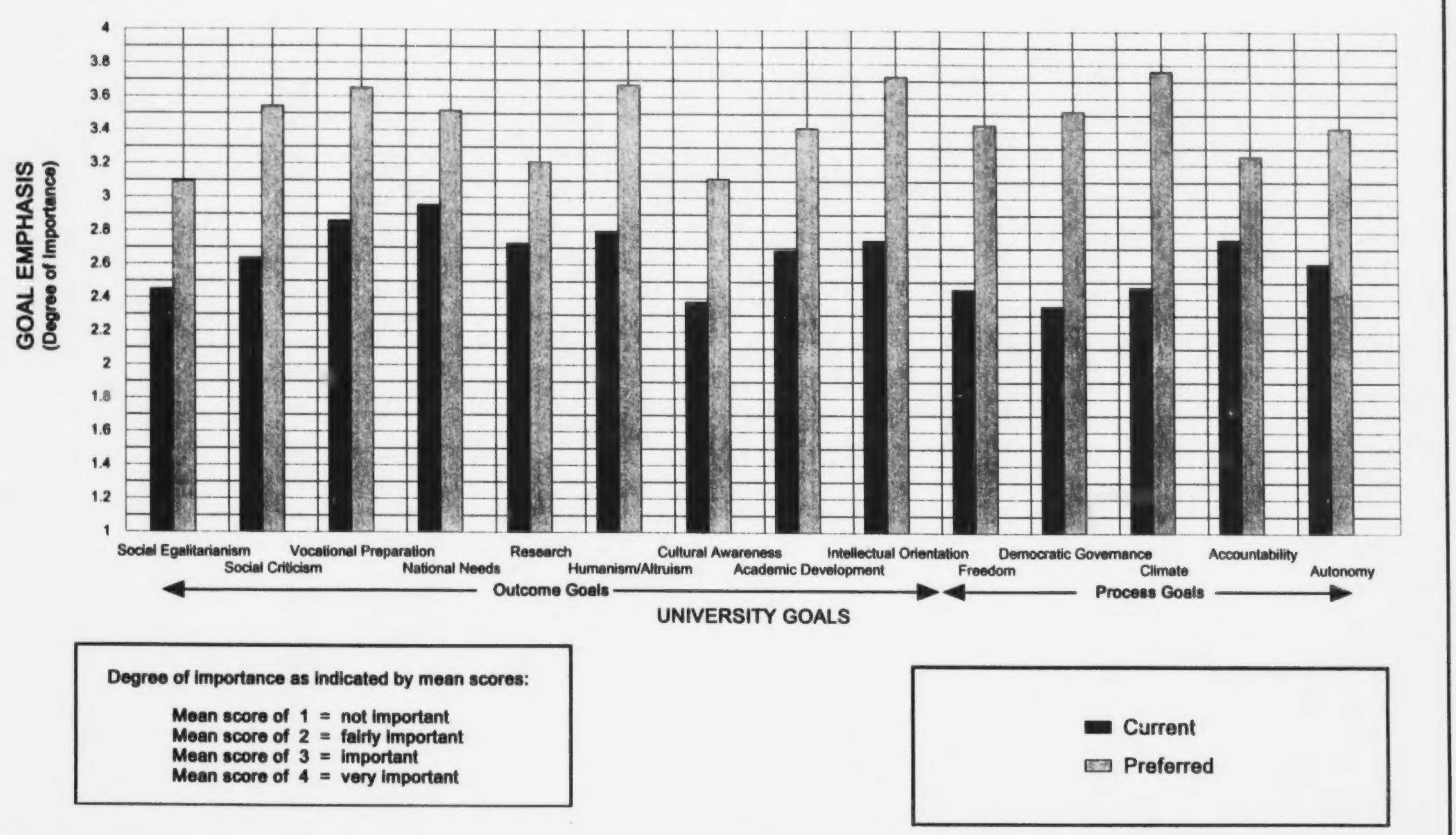


Figure 5

emphases by UM and UKM are displayed in Figures 4 and 5 respectively. These findings are highly interesting and should receive special attention with respect to their implications.

Highlights of Survey Findings on Goal Perceptions

Tables 1 to 16 present the main survey findings with respect to the academics' perceptions of the current and preferred emphases of fourteen selected university goals. These data are also graphically displayed in Figures 1 to 5 to serve as useful interpretative aids for a quick summary.

The "current" ratings are lower than the "preferred" ratings in the case of all goals for both the total respondents as well as for the two separate groups. There are significant differences between the universities in their perceptions of the current goal emphasis (Table 3). UKM's ratings are significantly higher than UM's for all the goals. This is the only major difference in goal perceptions between the universities. This difference implies that the UKM academics perceive that their university is currently emphasizing all the goals at a higher level of importance than is UM.

However there are no significant differences in their perceptions of the preferred ratings of most goals (Table 7).

This suggests that the academics share almost similar perceptions regarding ideal goal emphases. In addition, irrespective of the university, there is also greater consensus among the academics about the "preferred" ratings than about the "current" ratings (Table 10). Similarly, the ranking of goals in terms of their perceptions of both current and preferred priority is almost identical.

In terms of the ranking of current goal priorities, the academics perceive that their universities are emphasizing outcome goals as more important than process goals. The two goals that are seen to be accorded most emphasis currently are the outcome goals of national needs and vocational preparation, whereas the process goal of democratic governance, climate and freedom are perceived to be among the least emphasized current goals (Table 2). On the other hand, the most important preferred goal priorities are intellectual orientation, climate and humanism, while research, social egalitarianism, and cultural awareness are among the least important (Table 6). Hence, the current emphasis is perceived to be on the more utilitarian outcome goals such as national needs and vocational preparation, while the more preferred emphases are on the "ivory tower" goals such as intellectual orientation and climate. It is interesting to note the remarkable similarity in the way the two university sub-groups rank the fourteen goals especially in terms of their preferred priorities (Table 4 and 8).

Another insight into the question of goal priority is provided by the analysis of the mean gaps between the current and preferred goal ratings. For both groups, the goals that have relatively large mean gaps are climate, intellectual orientation, democratic governance, freedom, humanism/altruism and social criticism (Table 13, 14 & 15). The academics feel that these goals should be accorded more emphases than currently assigned. On the other hand, the goals of research, national needs and social egalitarianism have relatively small mean gaps, thus indicating that their current and preferred emphases match closely.

To provide a better understanding of the survey findings regarding the academics' goal perceptions, it is useful to refer to their operationalized definitions. The six goals which are perceived to require more emphases than currently assigned - climate, intellectual orientation, democratic governance, freedom, humanism/altruism and social activism - have been operationalized as follows:

1. *Climate refers to maintaining climate in which there is faculty commitment to the general welfare of the institution, open and candid communication, and open and amicable airing of differences.*

2. *Intellectual orientation which relates to an attitude of learning and intellectual work. ... a familiarity with research and problem-solving methods, the ability to synthesize knowledge from many sources, the capacity for self-directed learning, and a commitment to lifelong learning.*

3. *Humanism/altruism reflects a respect for diverse cultures, commitment to working for world peace, consciousness of the important moral issues of the time, and the concern about the welfare of man generally.*

4. *Democratic governance means decentralized decision-making arrangements by which students and lecturers can significantly participate in decisions affecting them and governance that is responsive to their concerns.*

5. *Freedom which is defined as protecting the right of faculty to present controversial ideas in the classroom, not preventing students from hearing controversial points of view, placing no restrictions on off-campus activities by lecturers and students.*

6. *Social activism means providing criticisms of prevailing Malaysian practices and values, offering ideas for changing social-political institutions or practices which are either seen to be in crisis or oppressive, unjust etc., encouraging students to take an active role in improving the Malaysian society.*

The goal statements which are used in the questionnaire to define the rest of the fourteen university goals are found in Appendix C.

The survey findings on goal perceptions are better understood in the light of the interview data which provide further insights into the academics' perceptions of the current and ideal goals of the university. In the following discussion, the relevant interview data on goal perceptions are treated qualitatively to enrich the quantitative survey data. In other words, the interviews elaborate on the findings of the survey.

The Academics Speak on University Goals

Midway through the interview process it became clear that the academics of both UM and UKM shared quite similar views about university goals. Since the survey data also indicate that the perceptions of the academics of UM and UKM are similar in many ways, it was deemed unnecessary to report the interview data separately by university.

The following analysis of the interview data is reported parsimoniously in prose form, highlighting only the most representative comments. As the interviewees spoke in both English and Malay, direct quotations only in English are occasionally used in the report. Gender-neutral terms are used as far as possible.

The Current University Goals

The academics comprising the sample as a whole generally concur that the current university goals currently given priority by their universities are closely related to producing manpower needs of the Malaysian economy. The universities are expected to help the nation achieve the national industrialization goal of Vision 2020 in terms of producing graduates in science and technology. To quote a professor, "the current concern of the university is to produce the manpower needs in large quantity and quickly too, to meet the needs of Vision 2020." To quote another, "the university is currently engaged in an almost factory-like production of graduates to serve the expanding economy." University education is perceived to be more concerned with producing graduates in the applied disciplines for " quick entry into the work place." In so doing, the universities are emphasizing the "how to" aspects rather than "exploring other methods through the process of problem-solving." Even professional undergraduate courses like Education and Medicine stress "the more technical aspects over the philosophical and professional aspects", according to one professor.

The concern with utilitarianism and quantity is perceived to be over-emphasized at the expense of quality. The current priority given by the university to the production of skilled manpower for the job market "has reduced and relegated the university to a college status." It is felt that as the universities were "hard-pressed to meet the pressures of the high demand for manpower under the present development plan based on Vision 2020, the social dimension of a university education is neglected". Moreover, the quality of teaching in the university is also perceived to be negatively affected as the academics have to teach large numbers of students. As well, the heavier teaching load is seen to encroach on time available for research. The university's concern with utilitarianism is also evident in the types of research that are currently emphasized i.e., that which has commercial applications for current industrial needs. The funding allocation of the Intensified Research Priority Areas (IRPA) under the Ministry of Science and Technology in upcoming Seventh Malaysia Plan (1996- 2000) attests to this.

In the recent move to improve and strengthen R & D activities under the IRPA mechanism throughout the universities, several sectoral committees were set up to address the urgent need to embark upon focused domestic R & D, especially in the thrust areas of Advanced Materials, Automated Manufacturing, Biotechnology, Electronics and Information Technology etc. which have been identified by the Government, and to build core-competence in strategic areas of science and technology. This is seen to represent the research opportunities associated with Malaysia's present transition from a manufacturing-oriented economy towards an economy that is based on more technology-intensive industries. The above statement was announced in July 1994 by the Strategic Sector Committee, (responsible to the University IPRA Committee, the University of Malaya), in its first effort to encourage the academics to align their research expertise with the nature and scope of strategic research priorities that have been identified by the National Strategic Panel under the Seventh Malaysia Plan.

While the immediate manpower requirement of the expanding economy may be urgent, some academic interviewees expressed concern that the university should not neglect the humanistic goal of developing a caring society which, in fact, is the other main objective of Vision 2020. An interviewee commented that the university has interpreted Vision 2020 very narrowly as the objective of "a developed nation" means more than achieving the status of an industrialized society. It was further pointed out that "the more advanced developed countries were already talking about creativity and innovativeness." The academics felt that it is not sufficient merely to emphasize on technical and vocational preparation. It is expressed that the university should interpret the objectives of Vision 2020 more broadly to include the development of a progressive society, that is "thinking and reflective as well as creative, innovative and caring." The development of these aspects is closely associated with the place of humanities and social sciences in university curricula. A senior economics professor pointed out that ironically, the humanities and social sciences are currently not given the same importance as science and technology even though "the humanities are critical to the achievement of the status of a developed nation in the long run". The humanities and social sciences were described by this professor as the "handmaiden to the applied sciences and technology".

However, it was pointed out that the applied disciplines in the Social Sciences, such as "communications" and "psychology", are popular with students because they are closely related to business. Students' choice of study is strongly influenced by the economic and market demands. In other words, students in Malaysia are driven by the labor market concerns and hence they prefer to study "what counts."

It was pointed out by interviewees that the low demand for the pure disciplines and the humanities and social sciences is the consequence of the emergence of "a monetized culture among the general public" which emphasizes the extrinsic value of education. This culture is the logical outgrowth of the expanding economy presently experienced in Malaysia. Within this context, university education has increasingly become "commodified" that it is seen as a commodity to be purchased and traded in exchange for a well-paying job. Hence, the faster one could obtain a university degree, the better the investment. Dore's diploma disease has "infected" the Malaysian society where a degree is seen as the passport to a good job. Within this monetized culture, the prevailing logic is to choose a degree program in the applied disciplines. The evidence of this market-oriented value is captured in the advertisements related to higher education such as "Diplomas in the shortest possible time" (in Computtimes, The New Straits Times dated Feb. 28, 1994, page 21). This culture appears to be supported also by the government as it augurs well for the achievement of the economic development objective of Vision 2020.

In conclusion, both the survey and interview data reveal that vocational and technical preparation and meeting the national needs are perceived as the current primary university goals. The academics are concerned that the current obsession with the extrinsic value of university education at the expense of its intrinsic value is contradictory to the achievement of the status of a developed and progressive nation in the long run.

The Ideal University Role

At the interview, the academics stated that the ideal role of the university is to be "a center of academic excellence extending the frontiers of knowledge." They argue that the universities should not remain at "the periphery of international knowledge." A center of excellence is perceived to be "an intellectual center capable of creating knowledge" and "a place of scholarship promoting academic excellence". The essential university functions are therefore teaching and research with publications for the international and local consumption to add to existing knowledge and to enlighten the public. It is pointed out, that unlike a college which focuses on producing marketable skills for the marketplace, the university should focus on training students to be intellectual elites and future leaders. It is argued that "universities should be 'elitist and precious' as only a few could be intellectuals and leaders and there is nothing wrong with this ivory-tower image of universities." This view expressed by interviewees of both UM and UKM, concurs with the survey findings which reveal that intellectual orientation is one of the most important preferred university goal (Table 6 and 8).

Intellectual Climate

Climate is perceived to be another very important preferred goal. Universities should have the right atmosphere and environment "like Cambridge and Oxford with the hallowed halls of academe which echo a special intellectual aura". The emphasis should be on "fostering a conducive campus climate to promote the pursuit of knowledge for its intrinsic value." It is argued that the university must have a supportive environment in terms of facilities and opportunities permitting the perpetuation of academic scholarship.

It is maintained as well that the ideal university goal emphasis should first focus on pure research with scientific rigor and academic excellence rather than on only those that have commercial applications because research in the fundamentals would naturally bring about successful applications to nation-building. By arguing that the two goals of academic excellence and research for nation-building "should gel" so that they would not conflict, academics express agreement that universities have a responsibility toward nation-building. In effect, they feel that there need not be a contradiction between these two goals. The university could recruit the best brains based on meritocratic principles to ensure academic excellence which is necessary to achieve the objectives of Vision 2020. It is pertinent to point out that the survey data indicate that national needs are perceived to be the most important current goal in UM and UKM, while intellectual orientation which is perceived to be the most preferred goal, is currently not emphasized enough.

University Teaching

University teaching should also focus on fundamentals and basics, with academic rigor in specialized disciplines. It is maintained that this would not conflict with the current emphasis on training marketable skills because the fundamental knowledge is critical to learning marketable skills. Only when there are strong fundamentals can good application of knowledge and skills be exercised. In this way, "concentrating on the fundamentals and academic rigor" is consistent with the national industrialization plans because better decisions are likely to be made when they are based on good fundamentals. To quote a professor, the ideal role of the university "is to train people to think independently and to provide them with the knowledge and conditions to think creatively." Hence, the emphasis should be on "pedagogy and not merely on content."

University Curriculum

Another interviewee also maintains that the undergraduate curriculum should preferably be interdisciplinary and focused on "teaching broad based skills rather than narrow specific skills." Ideally too, there should be some interdisciplinary education across faculty courses so that students can be broad based and more marketable. Vocational preparation should focus on "generic skills and a basic education to develop students in independent thinking and trainable skills." It is the workplace that must provide training in the more specific skills.

Humanism

Some academics feel that ideally, university education and research should have a humanistic component. A humanistic education is important to counter the insidious threat of the current over-emphasis of commercialism and materialism. Ideally, "the universities should prepare individuals to be motivated not just with making money but also to be concerned with providing service to community". The place of humanities and social sciences must be respected, as these disciplines are crucial for moral and social development, equally important aspects of a "developed nation". This would contribute to fulfilling the national objective of developing a "caring society" envisaged under Vision 2020. In addition, it is pointed out that humanities stimulate creativity and innovativeness which are crucial to achieving the industrialization objective of Vision 2020.

It is pointed out that one of the shortcomings of current emphasis with respect to university goals is that, in emphasizing vocational preparation, the humanities are underemphasized, particularly in UM, as indicated by the survey data (Table 2). On the other hand, the survey data indicate that Humanism/altruism is the third most important current goal in UKM, where liberal education has recently been incorporated into the undergraduate curriculum; for example, History and Civilization are compulsory courses in all undergraduate programs. Similarly, a course in the Philosophy of Science is recently made a compulsory course in the science education program.

The ideal university curriculum is perceived by academics to be "a balance between liberal and science/technical education, a balance between technical and spiritual needs." To quote one academic, "History would give one a sense of origin" and a sense of "connectedness". It is suggested as well that a course in the "History of Medicine" in the Medical Program would help doctors appreciate the contributions of early scientists. It is further expressed that in view of "the increasing dehumanization and depersonalization in professions, it is necessary to inject some aspects of humanities into the professional courses of study". For example, the development of a humanistic medical education would sensitize doctors to the fact that a patient is "more than a number and a bed."

In short, the interview data supplemented the survey findings of the academics' perception regarding the preferred university goal emphases. The academics of both the universities agree that the universities should emphasize intellectual orientation, climate and humanism but these are currently under-emphasized. They also agree that the universities should play an important role in meeting national needs which is seen to be currently accorded the most emphasis in both the universities.

So far, the discussion of the findings have addressed the three research questions having to do with university goal perceptions of the academics vis-a-vis the current and the ideal. The perceptions of the academics about the relationship of their university to the government and to the private sector is discussed in the next research question.

HOW DO THE ACADEMICS PERCEIVE THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE UNIVERSITY TO THE GOVERNMENT AND PRIVATE SECTOR?

The relationship of the university to the government and to the private sector is related to the goal of autonomy. In this study, autonomy is defined as the university's independence from the governmental and private sectors in planning university programs (Appendix B). As discussed earlier in relation to the first three research questions, the survey findings reveal that there is a significant difference between the current and preferred emphases on autonomy (Tables 10, 11 and 12) as perceived by the academics. The academics perceive that the current emphasis of this goal is only "fairly important" when it should be emphasized as "very important". This implies that their universities should place greater importance on university autonomy than is currently the case.

University-Government Relationship

When the academics are asked for their views about the relationship between their university and the government, the majority (almost 75%) disagree with the statement that the "government should be actively involved in university affairs" (Table 17).

TABLE 17

RESPONSE TO STATEMENT THAT

GOVERNMENT SHOULD BE ACTIVELY INVOLVED IN UNIVERSITY AFFAIRS

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
AGREE	20	23.8%	20	27.4%	40	25.5%
DISAGREE	64	76.2%	53	72.6%	117	74.5%
TOTAL	84	100.0%	73	100.0%	157	100.0%

Chi-square = .10954, not significant at 0.5 level.

However, 58% of the respondents (Table 18) would like to see the government involved in goal determination of the university to "some extent" only. Hence, it can be summarized that, while slightly more than half of the total sample would like to have some government participation in goal determination, a large majority do not want the government to be actively involved in university affairs. It should be noted that the chi-square analyses indicate that no statistically significant association was found between the respondents' view on this issue and their university affiliation (Table 18).

TABLE 18

EXTENT OF DESIRED GOVERNMENT INVOLVEMENT IN GOAL DETERMINATION

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
A GREAT EXTENT	5	6.0%	3	4.1%	8	5.1%
SOME EXTENT	39	46.4%	44	60.3%	83	52.9%
SMALL EXTENT	34	40.5%	22	30.1%	56	35.7%
NOT AT ALL	6	7.1%	4	5.5%	10	6.4%
TOTAL	84	100.0	73	100.0	157	100.0%

Chi-square = 3.02, not significant at 0.05 level.

When the respondents were asked to list some important action which they would like the government to take, some of the responses were as follows:

> *More funding for research and for updating the facilities.*
>
> *Ensure that the university goals were made known and accepted by the university.*
>
> *Less control and intrusion and restrictions, instead more consultation with academic staff and listen to their views.*
>
> *More autonomy.*
>
> *Practice meritocracy - recruit the best academic staff irrespective of race.*
>
> *Recognize the university expertise and utilize their skills and knowledge.*
>
> *Election for administrative positions and democratize the administration.*
>
> *Ensure the appointment of an efficient and qualified VC to provide good leadership.*
>
> *Provide a more efficient support system.*
>
> *Nurture equal partnership.*

The above views obtained from the survey questionnaire indicate that academics generally want some government involvement, but only in non-academic matters. And they also want to be consulted by the government as equal partners in decision-making on these matters.

Further insights regarding their views on government involvement in universities are obtained through the interviews. The interviewees express the view that, currently, there is too much government involvement, particularly in the administration of the university. The erosion of university autonomy has adversely affected the working conditions in the university. The current salary scheme for the academics (known as the SSB) was laid down by the government and regulated by the Civil Service Department. The government runs the university as "a civil service bureaucracy" and the academics are classified as civil servants performing a public service. It is expressed that, by equating the university to a civil service organization, the image of the university has suffered. "The awe and mystery that is attached to the depth and possession of knowledge and the academic community is lost" in this association. A senior academic exclaimed:

> *it was unthinkable that promoted professors were rewarded with civil service perks such as a university car and entertainment allowances which were recognition of excellent civil service. It would be more appropriate that professors be rewarded with facilities such as the services of secretaries and research assistants which would enable the professors to carry out more efficiently their new academic leadership responsibilities.*

This suggests that the nature of academic work has not been understood by the government.

It was felt that the government has too much influence at all levels - from the recruitment and promotion of academics to student admission; funding and even program approval. The University Council, the most powerful decision-making body in the university, has strong representation of the government. This is statutory, mandated by the Universities and University Colleges Act 1971 which regulates the university affairs.

The Act regulates the internal organization and administrative structure of all Malaysian universities. When the Universities and University Colleges Act was legalized for university operation, the Minister of Education was made responsible for the general policy of higher education and the administration of the various articles of the Act. A Higher Education Advisory Council was established in 1972 to advise the Minister on this. The power of the Minister of Education extends to the appointment of the Vice Chancellor and deputy Vice-Chancellors. Deans and Heads of Department who were formerly elected are now appointed by the Vice-Chancellors of the respective universities.

Government control of the university was further strengthened when the Malaysian Parliament passed the Constitution (Amendment) Bill of 1971 which required universities to admit more bumiputra students. The purpose of the bill was to achieve the social restructuring objective of the NEP by providing bumiputras with greater opportunities through university education in order to redress the existing economic imbalances between the bumiputras and non-bumiputras. To coordinate effectively the implementation of the bill, the government established the Central University Admissions Unit (Pusat Universiti-universiti) in 1971 to ensure that university admissions conform accordingly. The implementation of this policy eroded one of the deeply rooted university traditions, which is, the admission of students on the basis of merit.

The 1975 amendments to the Universities and University Colleges Act of 1971 provided for more heads of government departments to serve as members of the councils of all universities. This further strengthened the government's direct link to the universities. The direct link enabled the government to monitor and coordinate the overall university development in accordance to the objectives of the NEP and the national development policies of the country (Selvaratnam, 1989).

Government involvement in the university in Malaysia is seen to be expedient to the implementation of the New Economic Policy (NEP), the socio-economic policy which aims at restructuring the composition of the academic and student population in the universities along ethnic lines. One interviewee commented that "universities had become increasingly political and academic excellence and student quality had suffered as a consequence of the NEP-directed policy regarding recruitment and promotion of academics and admission of students, which is based on racial quotas rather than meritocracy." The image of the state universities has become associated with low quality lecturers and students. This image was reinforced when the government began to send better students to foreign universities on government scholarships.

It is felt that too much bureaucracy and over-centralization in the university administration is interfering with the development of academic work. For example, with regard to research funding, some academics feel that the government is interested only in "tangible" research results. It is felt that applied research especially that which has direct and immediate application and relevance to the industrialization aim of Vision 2020, is favored over basic academic research. An obsession with implementing this criterion in research funding according to some interviewees is too short-sighted and thus may prove to be adverse to the longer term development of the universities. It is pointed out during the interview that although it is impossible to have full and absolute university autonomy, especially in a developing country when the universities are fully funded by the state such as in the case of Malaysia, it is important to have a high degree of relative autonomy. This is because a high degree of relative autonomy is crucial to fostering academic creativity and imagination.

The Malaysian state finances local state universities almost entirely. The government is presently urging the universities to be more accountable. Its concern with greater university accountability has led it to recently appoint a corporate man as the Vice-Chancellor (VC) of UM. This is the first time in the history of Malaysia's university that a non-academic is appointed to the position of chief executive. For some interviewees, this is a positive move especially when they perceive the VC's post to be one that is more administrative than academic. They feel that a corporate VC would be more likely to manage the university efficiently. These academics feel that a corporate organization might be better than the present bureaucratic structure. Moreover, they feel that the working conditions would be improved with a more corporate approach in university management and administration. Some academics argue that it is not important for the VC to be an academic so long as the incumbent knows how academics think and that decisions have an academic component in them.

When the academics were asked in the survey questionnaire for their opinion as to whether "universities should adopt a corporate approach and operate like an economic enterprise" they were split in their response. Exactly half the number of respondents agreed and the other half disagreed (Table 19). The academics held the same view irrespective of the university in which they worked.

TABLE 19

RESPONSE TO STATEMENT THAT
UNIVERSITIES SHOULD ADOPT A CORPORATE APPROACH

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
AGREE	**42**	**50.0%**	**37**	**50.0%**	**79**	**50.0%**
DISAGREE	**42**	**50.0%**	**37**	**50.0%**	**79**	**50.0%**
TOTAL	**84**	**100.0%**	**74**	**100.0%**	**158**	**100.0%**

Chi-square = 0, not significant at 0.5 level.

University-Industry linkage

In the survey questionnaire, when the academics are asked whether "academic work/research should be closely related to the national industrialization objective of Vision 2020", almost 78% of the total respondents agree (Table 20). Almost as high a proportion (73%) agree that 'universities should be actively involved in the private sector' as shown in Table 21. The chi-squares analyses in the two tables (20 and 21) indicate that these views are not associated in any significant way to the university affiliation of the academics, meaning that the same views were held irrespective of where they worked.

TABLE 20

RESPONSE TO STATEMENT THAT

ACADEMIC WORK/RESEARCH SHOULD BE CLOSELY RELATED TO THE NATIONAL INDUSTRIALIZATION OBJECTIVE OF VISION 2020

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
AGREE	61	72.6%	62	83.8%	123	77.8%
DISAGREE	23	27.4%	12	16.2%	35	22.2%
TOTAL	84	100.0%	74	100.0%	158	100.0%

Chi-square = 2.23, not significant at 0.5 level.

TABLE 21

RESPONSE TO STATEMENT THAT

UNIVERSITIES SHOULD BE ACTIVELY INVOLVED IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
AGREE	65	79.3%	49	66.2%	114	73.1%
DISAGREE	17	20.7%	25	33.8%	42	26.9%
TOTAL	82	100.0%	74	100.0%	156	100.0%

Chi-square = 2.73, not significant at 0.5 level.

It is important to interpret these responses with some reservation because of the earlier interview comments by some academics that an obsession with applied research might be detrimental to the long term development of the universities. This view is perhaps better understood in the context of another view (already discussed earlier) that universities in developing countries realistically must serve the needs of nation-building to some extent and that the two university goals of academic excellence and research for nation-building need not be contradictory (p. 193).

It can be concluded that the interviewees generally view positively about university-industry linkage. Many view the university-business relationship as complementary to the main business of the university which is to produce knowledge. The germ or the original thoughts or ideas must first be put together at the university and rigorously tested before further research into the application of relevant findings to industries (if any) can be done. The application research can then be funded by the industries. Some argue that university-industry linkage is good because it allows university expertise to be utilized thereby enhancing its public image and respect while removing the negative aspect associated with its "ivory-tower image". The relationship would provide academics with opportunities to be consulted by the corporate sector, thereby enabling them to touch base with "the real world". From these arguments, it appears that Malaysian academics seem to agree with the stand taken by Maxwell and Currie (1984) who argue that a university-industry partnership is desirable because universities can enjoy many benefits from such a partnership. None of the academics interviewed expressed any concern relating to the danger of such partnerships raised by many authors (Newson and Buchbinder, 1988; Woodhouse, 1988; Jhally, 1989;, Smith, 1974; see Chapter 3). The reason could be because the private corporations in Malaysia are not of the magnitude of those in North America such that they can impose their power over universities.

In summary, the academics of UM and UKM generally perceive the government influence in the university to be rather excessive and even negative, while they perceive the linkage with the private sector as positive for the university's development. The above discussion has addressed the issue of institutional autonomy of the university vis-a-vis the nature of the relationship of the university to external forces such as the government and the private sector. The next research question will focus on another dimension of autonomy, which is, the professional autonomy of the academics.

HOW DO THE ACADEMICS VIEW THEIR PROFESSIONAL AUTONOMY?

Having control over one's work is an aspect of professional autonomy. An examination of Tables 22 and 23 shows that the majority of the respondents (over 90%) indicate that it is "important" for them to have control over their research and teaching. Almost 80% (Table 22) feel that it is, in fact, "very important" to have control over research while only 55% (Table 23) express the same importance about teaching. This indicates that a greater proportion of academics feel that it is more important to have control over what they research than over what they teach. The possible explanation for this findings could be because teaching in Malaysia is highly regulated, even at the university level. This view of the academics is independent of their university affiliation, as indicated by the non-significant chi-square analysis shown in Tables 22 and 23.

Academic Freedom

Another aspect of professional autonomy relates to the goal of academic freedom. As discussed earlier in relation to the first three research questions of the study, the academics perceive that current emphasis on freedom is

TABLE 22

EXTENT OF IMPORTANCE OF ACADEMICS HAVING CONTROL OVER RESEARCH

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY IMPORTANT	72	84.7%	54	74.0%	126	79.9%
IMPORTANT	10	11.8%	15	20.5%	25	15.8%
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	2	2.4%	4	5.5%	6	3.8%
NOT IMPORTANT	1	1.2%	0	0	1	0.6%
TOTAL	85	100.0%	73	100.0%	158	100.0%

Chi-square = 4.35 not significant at 0.05 level.

TABLE 23

EXTENT OF IMPORTANCE OF ACADEMICS HAVING CONTROL OVER TEACHING

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY IMPORTANT	49	57.6%	39	52.7%	88	55.3%
IMPORTANT	27	31.8%	28	37.8%	55	34.6%
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	7	8.2%	6	8.1%	13	8.2%
NOT IMPORTANT	2	2.4%	1	1.4%	3	1.9%
TOTAL	85	100.0%	74	100.0%	159	100.0%

Chi-square = 0.81, not significant at 0.05 level.

significantly lower than the preferred (Tables 10, 11 & 12). This goal should be "very important", not just "fairly important". The academics feel that the universities should assign greater emphasis to academic freedom.

In order to elaborate on the perceptions of academic freedom, it is useful to analyze the responses of one of the related goal statements, namely "protecting the right of university lecturers to present controversial views in research and teaching" (survey question 16 <3>). Table 24B shows that the majority (94%) felt that it was important to have this right protected. In fact 62 % felt that it was **very important**. However, only a very small percentage (ten percent) of the respondents perceived that this goal was **currently** accorded this level of importance (Table 24A) by their universities. In other words, the majority perceived that their universities were currently not giving due importance to protect this right of the lecturers. Table 24A also shows that a significantly larger proportion of UM academics (34.6%) than the UKM counterparts perceived that the university was currently treating this goal as "not important". This could be due to the different historical origins of the two universities. UKM was originally established as a national university in 1971 and the academics from the very beginning, were perhaps used to the ways of authoritative government interventions. Unlike UKM, UM was a transplant of the British university model, which

TABLE 24A

EXTENT OF CURRENT EMPHASIS IN PROTECTING THE RIGHT OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS TO PRESENT CONTROVERSIAL VIEWS IN RESEARCH AND TEACHING

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY IMPORTANT	6	7.7%	9	13.0%	15	10.2%
IMPORTANT	16	20.5%	26	37.7%	42	28.6%
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	29	37.2%	25	36.2%	54	36.7%
NOT IMPORTANT	27	34.6%	9	13.0	36	24.5%
TOTAL	78	100.0%	69	100.0%	147	100.0%

Chi-square = 11.770, significant at 0.05 level.

TABLE 24B

EXTENT OF PREFERRED EMPHASIS IN PROTECTING THE RIGHT OF UNIVERSITY LECTURERS TO PRESENT CONTROVERSIAL VIEWS IN RESEARCH AND TEACHING

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY IMPORTANT	49	59.8%	47	63.5%	96	61.5%
IMPORTANT	29	35.4%	21	28.4%	50	32.1%
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	3	3.7%	6	8.1%	9	5.8%
NOT IMPORTANT	1	1.2%	0	0	1	0.6%
TOTAL	82	100.0%	74	100.0%	156	100.0%

Chi-square = 2.919, not significant at 0.05 level.

highly cherished the value of academic freedom. This is best understood in the following remark made by the Higher Education Committee in 1967:

> Universities, to be worthy of that name, should be allowed complete autonomy in internal administration and full freedom in all academic matters. (Report of the Joint Committee on Finance on the University of Malaya, p 265)

In the interviews, some academics, especially the social scientists, allude that their academic freedom was curtailed to some extent because of the Sedition Act 1971. This Act prohibits public debates on politically sensitive issues on religion and ethnicity. Apart from this, the academics felt that they enjoyed a fair degree of freedom in their choice of research, teaching, service to the community and in the pursuit of their professional development.

A professor expressed that the government has marginalized the academics of the local state universities. The government preferred using foreign consultants and the expertise of the local "think-tanks", such as the Institute of International and Strategic Studies (ISIS) rather than the expertise of the local universities. This has damaged the reputation of the local academia to some extent.

University Climate

Closely related to academic freedom and professional academic autonomy is the university goal of climate. Campus climate may be enabling or constraining with respect to the expression of academic freedom in the university. For example, a campus climate of trust and respect where communication is open and honest is likely to be less threatening to free expression. As discussed earlier, climate was perceived to be one of the goals given lowest priority in terms of current goal emphasis (Tables 2 and 4). The academics perceived that the universities should instead be emphasizing it as one of the top two preferred priorities (Tables 6 and 8). A significant difference was found between the perceptions of its current and preferred importance (Tables 10, 11 and 12).

Further insights into university climate can be obtained from the responses to the following goal statements (survey questions 16<7>, <8> and <9>) in the survey questionnaire which operationalize its definition for this study:

1. *Maintain a campus climate in which communication is open and honest.*
2. *Foster a campus climate of mutual trust and respect among students, lecturers and administrators.*
3. *Maintain a climate in which lecturers' commitment to university goals is as strong as commitment to their own profession.*

The academics were asked to indicate their perceptions of the current and preferred emphasis of these statements. A total of six tables (Tables 25A & 25B, 26A & 26B and 27A & 27B) display their responses to the three statements.

A similar pattern of responses was observed in all the six tables. For example, less than thirteen percent of the respondents perceived that these three goals were currently emphasized as "very important". On the other hand, about 25 to 36 % perceived that these goals were currently "not important" in the universities (Tables 25A, 26A and 27A). In terms of preferred emphasis, 55 to 75% of the respondents perceived that these aspects of campus climate should be emphasized as "very important" (Tables 25B, 26B and 27B).

The chi-square analyses shown in Tables 25A, 26A and 27A, were significant for the responses of the current emphasis of all the three goals, indicating that the views were associated with institutional affiliation. In other words, a significantly larger proportion of UM academics than their UKM counterparts perceived that their university was currently not paying enough attention to maintaining and fostering a positive climate that would encourage lecturers' commitments to the university goals. It can be speculated from the interviews that this difference in the perceptions of campus climate between UM and UKM academics arose from the different leadership styles of the Vice-Chancellors of the two universities. This is also consistent with the

TABLE 25A

EXTENT OF CURRENT EMPHASIS IN MAINTAINING A CAMPUS CLIMATE IN WHICH COMMUNICATION IS OPEN AND HONEST

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY IMPORTANT	6	7.6%	13	18.8%	19	12.8%
IMPORTANT	10	12.7%	18	26.1%	28	18.9%
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	25	31.6%	22	31.9%	47	31.8%
NOT IMPORTANT	38	48.1%	16	23.2	54	36.5%
TOTAL	79	100.0%	69	100.0%	148	100.0%

Chi-square = 13.405, significant at 0.05 level.

TABLE 25B

EXTENT OF PREFERRED EMPHASIS IN MAINTAINING A CAMPUS CLIMATE IN WHICH COMMUNICATION IS OPEN AND HONEST

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY IMPORTANT	63	75.9%	54	74.0%	117	75.0%
IMPORTANT	15	18.1%	18	24.7%	33	21.2%
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	4	4.8%	1	1.4%	5	3.2%
NOT IMPORTANT	1	1.2%	0	0	1	0.6%
TOTAL	83	100.0%	73	100.0%	156	100.0%

Chi-square = 3.137, not significant at 0.05 level.

TABLE 26A

EXTENT OF CURRENT EMPHASIS IN FOSTERING A CAMPUS CLIMATE OF MUTUAL TRUST AND RESPECT AMONG STUDENTS, LECTURERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY IMPORTANT	6	7.5%	12	17.1%	18	12.0%
IMPORTANT	14	17.5%	18	25.7%	32	21.3%
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	24	30.0%	30	42.9%	54	36.0%
NOT IMPORTANT	36	45.0%	10	14.3	46	30.7%
TOTAL	80	100.0%	70	100.0%	150	100.0%

Chi-square = 17.272, significant at 0.05 level.

TABLE 26B

EXTENT OF PREFERRED EMPHASIS IN FOSTERING A CAMPUS CLIMATE OF TRUST AND RESPECT AMONG STUDENTS, LECTURERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY IMPORTANT	60	73.2%	61	82.4%	121	77.6%
IMPORTANT	19	23.2%	12	16.2%	31	19.9%
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	3	3.7%	1	1.4%	4	2.6%
NOT IMPORTANT	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
TOTAL	82	100.0%	74	100.0%	156	100.0%

Chi-square = 2.184, not significant at 0.05 level.

TABLE 27A

EXTENT OF CURRENT EMPHASIS IN MAINTAINING A CLIMATE IN WHICH LECTURERS' COMMITMENT TO UNIVERSITY GOALS IS AS STRONG AS COMMITMENT TO THEIR OWN PROFESSION

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY IMPORTANT	6	7.7%	13	18.6%	19	12.8%
IMPORTANT	17	21.8%	24	34.3%	41	27.7%
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	29	37.2%	23	32.9%	52	35.1%
NOT IMPORTANT	26	33.3%	10	14.3	36	24.3%
TOTAL	78	100.0%	70	100.0%	148	100.0%

Chi-square = 11.178, significant at 0.05 level.

TABLE 27B

EXTENT OF PREFERRED EMPHASIS IN MAINTAINING A CLIMATE IN WHICH LECTURERS' COMMITMENT TO UNIVERSITY GOALS IS AS STRONG AS COMMITMENT TO THEIR OWN PROFESSION

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY IMPORTANT	61	73.5%	59	79.7%	120	76.4%
IMPORTANT	19	22.9%	14	18.9%	33	21.0%
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	2	2.4%	1	1.4%	3	1.9%
NOT IMPORTANT	1	1.2%	0	0%	1	0.6%
TOTAL	83	100.0%	74	100.0%	157	100.0%

Chi-square = 1.614, not significant at 0.05 level.

survey data on the views of the university leadership discussed under "University conditions" in the next section. However, the academics' views of the preferred emphasis of the three climate-related goals were not associated with their institutional affiliation (Tables 25B, 26B and 27B). In other words, the views on the preferred emphasis on climate were independent of the universities in which they worked.

University Conditions

Other aspects of campus climate are related to the existing state of university conditions. The academics were asked for their perception regarding ten conditions in their university which are listed in Table 28. More than 50% of the UKM academics consider all but one (higher education policy) of the ten conditions in their university to be facilitating the achievement of the ideal university goals. On the other hand, the majority of UM academics regard only three of these ten conditions in their university to be facilitating while the other seven are hindering the achievement of ideal university goals. In other words, the majority of UM academics feel that the existing state of most of the conditions in their university to be rather unsatisfactory.

TABLE 28

EXISTING STATE OF UNIVERSITY CONDITIONS

UNIVERSITY CONDITION		UM		UKM		TOTAL	
		H	F	H	F	H	F
FUNDING AVAILABILITY	%	58.3	41.7	37.0	63.0	48.4	51.6
	N	(49)	(35)	(27)	(46)	(76)	(81)
UNIVERSITY FACILITIES	%	63.5	36.5	44.9	55.1	55.2	44.8
	N	(54)	(31)	(31)	(38)	(85)	(69)
UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION*	%	76.2	23.8	34.2	65.8	56.7	43.3
	N	(64)	(21)	(25)	(48)	(89)	(68)
POLICIES & REGULATIONS*	%	75.3	24.7	42.5	57.5	60.1	39.9
	N	(64)	(21)	(31)	(42)	(95)	(63)
ACADEMIC CULTURE*	%	76.5	23.5	38.0	62.0	59.0	41.0
	N	(65)	(20)	(27)	(44)	(92)	(64)
LEADERSHIP STYLE*	%	73.5	26.5	12.3	87.7	44.9	55.1
	N	(61)	(22)	(9)	(64)	(70)	(86)
CORPORATE APPROACH	%	46.6	53.4	33.3	66.7	40.1	59.9
	N	(34)	(39)	(23)	(46)	(57)	(85)
RELATIONSHIP WITH PRIVATE SECTOR	%	40.2	59.8	28.2	71.8	34.6	65.4
	N	(33)	(49)	(20)	(51)	(53)	(100)
RELATIONSHIP WITH GOV'T	%	46.9	53.1	29.6	70.4	38.8	61.2
	N	(38)	(43)	(21)	(50)	(59)	(93)
HIGHER EDUC POLICY	%	54.9	45.1	51.4	48.6	53.2	48.6
	N	(45)	(37)	(37)	(35)	(82)	(72)

* Chi-squares are significant at 0.05 level.

H: Hindering the achievement of ideal university goals

F: Facilitating the achievement of ideal university goals.

It is interesting to note that the UM academics are most dissatisfied with four particular conditions. A significantly greater proportion of them (as high as over 75%) than UKM (less than 25 %) found the following conditions to be hindering the achievement of ideal university goals:

university administration,
policies and regulations,
academic culture, and
university leadership.

The chi-square analyses in Table 28 indicate that the views on these four conditions were significantly associated with the university where the academics work. In other words, UM academics appear to be more critical than their UKM counterparts of these university conditions.

The academics' perceptions of the existing state of university conditions and of the university climate are closely linked to their perceptions of their roles in the development of their university. A significantly larger percentage of UKM academics (72.7%) than their UM counterparts (45.9%) view their role as being "very important" in the determination of university goals (Table 29). The academics' perceptions about their role are significantly associated with their university affiliation.

TABLE 29

EXTENT OF IMPORTANCE OF ACADEMICS' ROLE IN GOAL DETERMINATION

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY IMPORTANT	39	45.9%	53	72.7%	92	58.2%
IMPORTANT	25	29.4%	10	13.7%	35	22.2%
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	12	14.1%	6	8.2%	18	11.4%
NOT IMPORTANT	9	10.6%	4	5.5%	13	8.2%
TOTAL	85	100.0%	73	100.0%	158	100.0%

Chi-square = 11.63 (Significant at 0.05 level)

TABLE 30

EFFECTIVENESS OF ACADEMICS' ROLE IN GOAL DETERMINATION

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
MORE EFFECTIVE	1	1.2%	10	14.3%	11	7.1%
LESS EFFECTIVE	64	76.2%	49	70.0%	113	73.4%
NO COMMENTS	19	22.6%	11	15.7%	30	19.5%
TOTAL	84	100.0%	70	100.0%	154	100.0%

Chi-square = 10.30, significant at 0.5 level.

TABLE 31

RESPONSE TO WHETHER ACADEMICS CAN INFLUENCE UNIVERSITY GOALS

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
YES	40	51.9%	45	62.5%	85	57.1%
NO	37	48.1%	27	37.5%	64	42.9%
TOTAL	77	100.0%	72	100.0%	149	100.0%

Chi-square = 4.45; Not significant at $p<0.05$

TABLE 32

EXTENT OF PARTICIPATION IN FACULTY MEETINGS BY UM AND UKM ACADEMICS

RESPONSE	UM		UKM		TOTAL	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
VERY ACTIVE	35	41.7%	33	45.2%	68	43.3%
ACTIVE	26	31.0%	29	39.7%	55	35.0%
SOMEWHAT ACTIVE	19	22.6%	8	11.0%	27	17.2%
NOT ACTIVE	4	4.8%	3	4.1%	7	4.5%
TOTAL	84	100.0%	73	100.0%	157	100.0%

Chi-square = 4.09 (Not significant at 0.05 level)

This finding is consistent with their views on the university administration, university rules and regulations, academic culture and particularly the university leadership (Table 28) discussed in the preceding section, as well as their views regarding the emphasis currently assigned to campus climate by their universities (Table 25A, 26A and 27A discussed earlier). Essentially, the UM academics are more critical and pessimistic and hence a significntly larger proportion of them compared to their UKM counterparts do not perceive their role to be "very important".

Table 30 shows that the majority of respondents (over 70%) in both institutions also perceive their role have become less effective over the last ten years. In contrast, it is interesting to note that only one of the total of 84 UM respondents felt that his role had become more effective over the last ten years compared to the 14% of UKM academics. Despite this perception, more than half of the total respondents (Table 31) indicated that they could influence university goals and the majority (a total of 78%, Table 32) indicated that they participated actively in faculty meetings.

In order to influence decisions on university goals, it is important for the academics to identify the major current concerns and challenges for them as academics as well as for their institutions. This is addressed in the following section.

WHAT ARE THE MAJOR CURRENT CONCERNS AND CHALLENGES FOR THE ACADEMICS, AND FOR THE MALAYSIAN UNIVERSITIES?

The academics of UM and UKM share many common concerns and professional challenges and they also expressed similar views about the institutional challenges for the Malaysian universities. This is evident in the comments made by the academic staff of the two universities in their responses to the open-ended question 24 and question 25 of the survey questionnaire as well as in the views they expressed during the interviews. The most representative comments of the academics are quoted occasionally to capture the essence of their views.

Concerns and Challenges of Academics

The major concerns and professional challenges perceived by the academics relate to the deteriorating quality of students and the declining standard of university teaching, existing condition of university facilities, lack of academic culture, low status of academics, brain drain and the lack of cohesive university goals.

Quality of University Students

The academics were concerned about the quality of the present university students. They expressed their frustration in teaching "students who are not committed and have no initiative, wanting to be spoonfed." They charge that students "don't read books, [and are] too dependent on teachers." and that they are "poor intellectually and also in attitude". Also, there was concern about the "falling standards of English" among the students, as this has limited student ability to engage in independent learning since most reference books are in English.

In their views, the deteriorating quality of university students in general, was a logical consequence of the expansion of university education in Malaysia. (See p. 110 for the increase in university student enrolment). It was pointed out in the interviews that the problem is associated with the speed at which the NEP was implemented to redress the racial imbalance in student composition in the universities. The student admission policy of the universities from 1971 onwards has been based on racial quotas rather than on meritocratic principles. The government has also contributed to the problem of deteriorating student quality in the local universities by sending good students on scholarship to foreign universities.

The deteriorating quality of students in the state universities in particular is a serious concern. These universities have been unable to compete with the recently established private colleges for the better students. This is because the better students are attracted to the market-oriented twinning programs offered by these private colleges. Consequently the state universities are landed with the "left-over" students who fail to obtain admission into these colleges. One interviewee points out that the courses and programs of the state universities "do not take into account the needs of changing time and keeping abreast of rapid development" and thus could not compete successfully with the private colleges for better students.

University Teaching

University teaching/lecturing had "lost its aura and social respect." The academics felt that the challenge is "maintaining standards and quality teaching." The challenge includes "teaching students to think rationally, to be holistic in approach, able to think globally and apply locally" and "to produce good students with good values" who were "capable of facing development challenges so that they can be useful to society." The academics further expressed the difficulty in overcoming this challenge, given that "teaching is not given recognition for promotion under SSB (the present salary scheme)", and that the "heavy teaching load" is increasing "without accompanying facilities."

University Facilities

The academics want a "more efficient administration backup" to assist them in their teaching and research. The UM academics in particular are concerned about the condition of facilities which they described as "old and run-down". This group also expressed their frustration about not being effective in "channelling concerns about deteriorating facilities to the bureaucratic university administration." A more detailed picture of this concern can be obtained from the survey findings about the conditions of university facilities (Table 28).

Academic Culture

There appears to be a general concern among academic staff about the lack of academic culture. This concern is evident in the following responses to the open-ended question 24 in the survey:

> *Declining knowledge base and academic standards.*
>
> *Absence of intellectual culture that can really stimulate and push the frontiers of knowledge for excellence.*
>
> *Lack of academic culture, lethargy, lack of ideas, innovation/idleness/courage and conviction, no excitement.*
>
> *Difficult to get new ideas accepted.*
>
> *No time to reflect and think because of too much mundane matters.*
>
> *Too service-oriented.*
>
> *No cooperation among academics in the same field.*

The dissatisfaction with the absence of an academic culture seems to be more prevalent especially among the academics at UM where 76.5% of them found it to be hindering the development of their university (Table 28).

Academic Credibility and Brain Drain

The academics are also concerned about the declining academic credibility. Many felt that "academics are perceived lowly by the private sector and the government" and there is a "need to raise the status of academics in the public eye" and " to get the private sector to recognize university expertise". They also pointed out that there is a "need to raise the responsibilities and integrity among lecturers". Some academics felt that there is "underutilization of expertise of senior staff." A professor pointed out that the government had indirectly contributed to the 'marginalization of the academics" by relying more on the expertise in the 'think-tanks' than on that which is available at university.

The quality of staff recruitment is a related concern. The academics perceived that the university is "unable to attract good staff as the pay is low" when compared to the private sector. In addition, there is a "brain drain" to the private sector. The present salary scheme (SSB) "does not reward young lecturers." The academics further felt that the "SSB also kills the motivation of genuine researchers and academicians" as there is a "long wait for promotion" under this salary scheme. The university management is described as "anti-merit". This frustration is well illustrated by an academic's sigh, "how to earn more money while still pursuing my academic ambitions."

Many academics suggest "better incentives for excellence" and "fairness in managing promotion". A suggestion was made to corporatize the university to generate more income to pay the academics better salaries. However, the fear is also expressed that "corporatization of universities might turn the universities into money-making machines and teaching might be compromised with little time for developing the human side of life."

University Management and Goals

The academics also perceive the university management to be "unsatisfactory and too bureaucratic". They attribute the unsatisfactory "bureaucracy and mediocrity of the university' to a "lack of leadership" as junior academics are appointed as heads of departments. They want a more "dynamic and forward-looking leadership" and one "without fear or favor" and a supportive university management practicing "democratic governance"

More serious is the perception that the university is "lacking cohesive goals, lacking direction, lacking clearly defined responsibilities and accountability of academics," and "lacking accountability to the public." Consequently there is "declining staff morale" and "low staff commitment to institutional goals." This is complicated by what the academics perceive as "political intrusion into the university."

It can be concluded that the concerns of the academics and challenges they face relate closely to the institutional shortcomings and the internal deficiencies within the universities. In short, the contemporary university crisis in UM and UKM was perceived to emerge from the internal organizational structure - bureaucratic, anti-merit, the unattractive salary scheme for academics, the lack of leadership and a definite vision of clearly defined goals to project its public commitment and image. This has caused a decline in the morale of academics. The morale crisis may have contributed to many academics becoming apathetic and disinclined to taking a more active role in the development of the university. They resort instead to committing themselves to their own profession rather than to the university's goals. Although these are the general frustrations, the feeling is more strongly expressed by the UM academics; this nuance is detected from the personal interviews.

The academics felt that the personal challenge of academics is "keeping abreast with development in one's field and new technology in research" and "juggling time for research and publication" which is problematic because of a "heavy teaching load and clinical work." The challenge includes "maintaining intellectual honesty in the face of pressure to conform" and "upgrading students to face the changing world."

Challenges for Malaysian State Universities

While the academics took cognizance of the professional challenges, they also offer their views on the institutional challenges confronting the Malaysian universities as well as some suggestions to overcome them.

Responsive Programs

One of the challenges faced by the state universities, as perceived by the academics is to compete with the recently established private colleges and foreign universities for better students. To meet this challenge, the academics suggested that the state universities should develop more relevant educational programs that are "responsive to changes and the needs of the market place". But the academics warned that, when meeting students' and national expectations, the universities should resist the tendency towards relegation to the status of technical and vocational colleges which are concerned only with producing graduates for the market place. The universities need to develop useful and meaningful programs that have an intellectual orientation "to match the changing needs and interests of Malaysian society". The academics, particularly those in the applied disciplines, suggested that universities need to "cope with speedy changes in the sciences and technology" and "to contribute to solving national problems". In meeting the manpower requirement of industrialization vis-a-vis the national development plan of industrialization, the academics, particularly those in the humanities, suggested that universities should also ensure that they are producing "independent thinking graduates who are morally responsible" and "sensitive to contemporary issues". These academics also remarked that Malaysian universities should initiate "social improvements" through "community involvement". As well, the universities should plan "to provide more places for students who wish to obtain a university education."

University Management

It is felt that the universities needed to improve the existing physical working conditions. This includes updating the facilities to enable academic staff to produce better research and teaching. In addition, the relationship of the academic staff to the university bureaucracy needs improvement. This corresponds with the survey findings regarding the academics' perceptions of the conditions in the universities (Table 28). The academics also felt that the universities need to improve the psychological conditions within the universities to plug the brain drain problem.

Academic Manpower Base

The state universities has lost many good academics to the private sector because of the latter's ability to offer more attractive salaries due to the current economic boom in Malaysia. At the same time, the state universities were also unable to recruit good academics because the SSB salary structure is unattractive.

Hence, the challenge for the Malaysian state universities is to recruit and retain good academic staff and thus to develop "a intellectual manpower base". This requires a review of the salary structure and of the psychological working conditions for the academics.

Closely associated with improving the working conditions in the university is greater assurance of "academic freedom to speak on controversial issues". The universities should encourage "research which are original and imaginative" so that "the research and publications meet with international standards." The university culture should also "develop an academic culture that is committed to the pursuit of knowledge and also to penetrate the corporate world". There appears to be a contradiction between the two tasks in the statement. The contradiction perhaps explains the tension felt by the academics in reconciling both the academic needs with the corporate needs that seem to be currently pressing at the university gate under the banner of university accountability. But some academics expressed that these two goals need not be contradictory since corporate needs depend on fundamental academic work.

In addition, opportunities should be made available for academics to grade their teaching and student supervision skills so that they can train students "to develop analytical and creative minds" that would be useful "for identifying and solving problems." The universities need to "establish an academic body that is free, aggressive and high calibre" (translation) and to contain the "political intrusion". On the other hand, some academics recognize that the universities, particularly the UM, face the challenge of "overcoming extremism and attitudes of anti-establishment" among some of their academic staff. One can speculate that this refers to the older academics who were first employed under the university system based on the British model.

The problem of establishing an academic base can also be related to the findings that climate and intellectual orientation, which are perceived to be the two most important preferred goals are not ranked highly as current goal emphases in either UM and UKM (Table 2 and 6; Table 4 and 8). The process goals of democratic governance and academic freedom are also not seen to be among the major current emphases. These were in fact perceived to be among the least-emphasized current goals. In other words, the academics feel that their universities are under-emphasizing the importance of these goals. As mentioned earlier, to understand the impact of this perception, it is useful to refer to the definitions of these goals as operationalized in this study (Appendix C).

There are significant differences between the actual and preferred emphases placed on these university goals. The academics felt that these goals should be accorded more emphases than currently assigned. Therefore, the two universities have to rethink and reexamine their goal emphases and priorities in order to retain competent academics and plug the brain drain problem. This is crucial to restoring the institutional image of the state universities and is pertinent to the development of the universities as "centers of academic excellence", which was expressed by academics who were interviewed, as being the ultimate challenge.

Summary of Findings

The university's role in this study has been conceptualized in terms of its goal emphases and priorities as well as in terms of its relationship to external (government and the private sector) and internal agencies (the academia). This research assumes that universities are social institutions that interact dynamically within the social context in which they are found.

The six research questions that were generated for the study can be categorized into two main groups. The first three questions address the issue of university goals, while the last three address the university's relationship to other agencies and the challenges that confront this institution and the academics professionally. The findings of the study are summarized under the headings of "University Goals" and "University relations".

University Goals

The data indicate that "national needs" and "vocational preparation" are perceived to be the most important goals currently emphasized by the two universities in the study. UM and UKM are perceived to mainly produce graduates who meet the manpower requirements for the industrialization objective of Vision 2020. The respondents seemed to support this current emphasis since the universities are fully government-funded. Moreover, some argue that these goals need not necessarily contradict the ideal university goals of academic excellence, intellectual orientation and knowledge advancement. It is a fact that the educational system in Malaysia has always been centralized and is highly regulated to serve the national manpower needs as well as to educate the citizens in the national ideology. Universities in Malaysia historically have always performed the role of state functionaries. In the light of this, this finding is not surprising.

Although the current emphases on "national needs" and "vocational preparation" are important, the UM and UKM academics believe that it is not sufficient to focus only on these goals. They feel that universities should place more emphasis on intellectual orientation for the pursuit of knowledge creation. They argue that such a goal emphasis would in fact help achieve the national economic development plans and would be necessary to sustain long-term economic growth. However, the study also found that goals such as democratic governance, climate, freedom, and autonomy that are key conditions for the pursuit of knowledge and truth, are not being accorded due emphasis at the present time in either of the two universities. The respondents rank these process goals lowest in their current priority lists.

In short, the goals that are seen to receive priority generally emphasize the utilitarian outcome and the extrinsic value of university education over process goals and the intrinsic value of this level of education. This suggests that the two Malaysian universities are currently driven by the demands of a market-oriented public and the manpower requirements of the national economy. The emerging university model could hence be described as a utilitarian one in that market forces seem to be asserting more influence than intellectual forces in determining what the goals of the university should be in a developing country that is experiencing an economic boom.

University Relations

This section discusses the findings about the university relationship to the private sector and to the government. These relationships illuminate the extent of institutional and professional autonomy which affects the role of academics, and defines the challenges confronting the Malaysian universities.

University-Private sector Linkage

The data indicate that university-industry linkage is supported by the academics. They argue that this linkage would help enhance the public's view of the importance of university. This implies that the academics of UM and UKM prefer a university model that combines Newman's "ivory tower" model with Bacon's utilitarianism since such a university model would emphasize both the intrinsic and extrinsic value of university education. Nevertheless, the academics of UM and UKM would prefer that their universities accord more priority to intellectual orientation, climate, humanism/altruism, goals which they feel should be given more importance than national needs and vocational preparation.

University-government relationship

The study found that the relationship of the university to the government is perceived by the academics to be intrusive and currently excessive. The academics, however, appear to welcome some government intervention and their participation in the non-academic aspects of university. A higher degree of autonomy is preferred since this would nurture the development of an academic climate which is conducive to intellectual growth, a condition that currently is perceived to be lacking.

However, the findings indicate that climate is currently not accorded due importance by either university. In addition to the low emphasis currently given to climate and autonomy, the majority of the respondents perceive the prevailing academic culture to be hindering the achievement of their preferred university goals. These findings are indicative of how academic staff perceive the psychological condition in the university.

Also, more than half of the respondents view the existing state of university facilities, the higher education policy, the university administration and its policies and regulations as hindering the achievement of ideal university goals. UM and UKM are highly regulated by government legislation; this has an inverse relationship to institutional autonomy and the professional autonomy of academics.

Role of the Academics

The majority of the respondents agree that academics should play an important role in goal determination, but they also believe that their role has become less effective over the last ten years. Despite this, over 50% of the respondents indicated that they could influence university goals, and the majority claim they participate actively in faculty meetings as well as through other channels wherever possible to contribute to the overall development of their university. The more disillusioned academics resort to committing themselves to their own professional goals rather than to the institutional goals. In their view, the government has increasingly marginalized the role of universities and the role of academics through its preference to consult foreign and local experts who are working for organizations such as the Institute of Strategic and International Studies (ISIS).

Concluding Remarks

The study found that the perceptions of academic staff who work at UM and UKM are quite similar, by and large, despite the fact that these universities have different origins. Over the last 35 years UM has become much like UKM because both universities are highly regulated by the same government university legislation, i.e., the Universities and University Colleges Act 1971. Since 1971, the original British traditions of UM have been gradually replaced by the national university model. UKM, the Malay acronym for the National University of Malaysia was established in 1971 to serve as the national university that is to cater to national developmental needs. It is quite likely that the residual effect of the British model in UM accounts for the occasional differences in the perceptions of the two groups of academics. For example, the UKM academics are generally more optimistic than their UM counterparts, especially the senior academics who lament the loss of the cherished traditions of the British model. The level of optimism perhaps accounts for the only major statistical difference in the survey findings, i.e., the UKM academics regard their university as currently emphasizing all fourteen goals at a significantly higher level of importance than do the UM's academics (Figure 1). However, the ranking of their perceptions of the current goal emphasis is almost identical. A more striking similarity is found in the ranking as well as the ratings of the preferred goals (Figure 2). This would indicate that, irrespective of their institutional affiliation, the academics in the sample have similar perceptions about the preferred or ideal university goals.

The two groups of academics also expressed quite similar views about the relationship of their universities to the government and to the private sector. They generally welcome the university-industry linkage but are critical of the increasing role of government in the affairs of their university. A difference between the two groups of academics lies in the degree to which they are critical of government intervention, a difference which was subtly caught in the personal interviews. It can be said the strength of their criticisms coincides with the optimism of UKM academics and the pessimism of the UM's counterparts. This difference again has its roots in the university's origin as well as in the social composition of the academics in the two universities.

Reflections

Towards the end of the data analysis, a hunch was developing that another variable, namely the discipline of the academics might affect their perceptions regarding the importance of the various university goals. In the light of this, a decision was made to run another computer analysis of the survey data to test the hypothesis.

The survey data are reanalyzed by the faculty in which the academics work, i.e., Arts- or Science-related faculty (item 6 of the survey questionnaire). The Arts-related faculties refer to Arts and Social Sciences, Humanities, Economics and Administration, Economic and Business Management, Education, Law and Islamic Studies. On the other hand, the Science-related faculties refer to Medicine, Engineering, Dentistry, Science, Physical and Applied Sciences, Life Sciences, Mathematical and Computer Sciences. Generally the findings indicate that statistically there are in fact, no significant differences between the academics working in the Arts-related and those working in the Science-related faculties in the perceptions of the current and preferred emphases of the fourteen university goals (See Appendix H).

As the statistical analysis based on faculty of work did not yield any significant result, the simple conclusion would be that the academics' perceptions regarding university goals are not associated with whether the academics are from the arts or science educational background. However, I am more inclined to believe that using faculty of work as a proxy for their discipline is perhaps inadequate to capture the nature of the academics' disciplines as to whether it is pure or applied. This is because these two types of disciplines are found in both the Arts- and the Science-related faculties. The applied disciplines tend to be more vocationally oriented and hence academics in these disciplines are more likely to attach greater importance to utilitarian goals of the university. As there is insufficient information from the survey data of this study to group the respondents by pure and applied disciplines, another study would be useful to test this hypothesis.

CHAPTER 7

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

This study examined the role of university in Malaysia, a developing country with a fast growing economy. The university's role in the study has been defined in terms of its goals and its relationship to the government and the private sector. These aspects of the university role were studied from the perceptions of the academic staff of two state-funded universities in Malaysia, namely UM and UKM.

The university is an institution that interacts dynamically with the larger social system in which it is situated. Its role has been shaped by the historical specificities of this larger social system and is continually influenced by the changing social, economic and political setting. In the late 1980s, Malaysia has begun pursuing the East Asian model of economic development with the intent to become an industrialized nation by the year 2020. The demands of the national development plan which is embodied in Vision 2020, are currently pressuring Malaysian universities to review their goal priorities.

In response to these contextual forces, new functions are being added to traditional, long-standing university functions. As they are about to enter the twenty-first century, universities therefore need to reassess their priorities and reaffirm their purpose. To this end, they must review what they are presently doing against what they should be doing. Academics are the major actors in the university's overall effectiveness. Their views cannot be overlooked in the formulation and reformulation of university priorities.

The central purpose of this study was to understand the changing role of the university vis-a-vis its goal priorities and its relationship to general developments of society. The study revealed the current development trend of universities in Malaysia and provided insights into the nature of issues pertinent to university development for the 21st century. This research also expands the knowledge on the development of higher education in general, and in particular, identifies the complex institutional dynamics of universities in a developing Asian country.

Discussion and Implications of Findings

The discussion of the findings of the study and their implications are presented in two parts. The first part discusses university goals and the goal-related issues. The second part contains the discussion of the implications regarding the findings about the university's relationship with government and industry. Government and industry driven by their own interests usually press directly or indirectly for competing visions of the role of the university. This poses a threat to the issue of university autonomy and professional autonomy of academics.

Part I: University Role

Competing ideologies concerning the role of the university, also referred to as "models" or "visions", frequently correspond to broader societal views, each of which carries distinct prescriptions for policy, not only in higher education but also for society at large. Visions are shaped by the dynamic interplay of political, economic and social forces in a particular society.

Visions of the university have real sponsors (such as the government and/or the industrial capitalists) and an accepted or officially adopted vision usually directs the funding formulae, priorities in resource allocation, curricula designs, academic work processes, criteria for academic staff recruitment, student admission policies and the institution's organizational structures. As Newson and Buchbinder (1988) say, visions generally have the potential for mobilizing and bringing into play the human agents and the necessary political and economic resources to influence academic reality.

Visions of University

Newson and Buchbinder (1988) identify four visions: academic haven for scholars, tool for economic growth, social transformer model and the service university (see Chapter 3). While the last vision is rather, the first three have been the traditional models competing for attention inside the university.

Today there is a strong revival of the economic tool model of the university. The human capital approach is seen as the way to succeed in international economic competitiveness. It is based on the belief that new knowledge is the most important factor in economic and social growth and that no country can prosper without quality university education and training.

The findings of the study suggest that this view of the university prevails in Malaysia, at least, according to some academic staff. The universities are perceived by academic staff of UM and UKM to be currently emphasizing the "vocational preparation" and "national needs" as the most important goals. While the academics may seem to support this current goal emphasis, they are nevertheless concerned. In particular, they pointed out that an obsession with the vocational preparation goal might sacrifice an intellectual orientation and thereby relegate the status of universities to that of vocational colleges.

The role of university vis-a-vis the "social transformation model" is currently marginalized because of the present exaltation of technological innovations and emphasis on economic competition. This indicates that university goals such as "social criticism" and "social egalitarianism" are perceived to be of medium or low priority by UM and UKM academics. The existence of the Sedition Act since 1971 has discouraged any public criticism that might undermine national security. This discouragement helps to account for the relatively low emphasis accorded to the goal of social criticism even though it is undeniably one of the basic academic goals.

Since 1971 the main equity issues in Malaysia have been addressed by the New Economic Policy (NEP) which aims at restructuring Malaysian society along ethnic lines. After twenty years, the pro-equity NEP while still operative, has since been overshadowed in importance by the pro-growth development thrust which is implied in the objectives of Vision 2020. This national framework for current development policy is associated with academics' perception that a relatively low priority is currently being assigned to social egalitarianism as a university goal in Malaysia.

A development agenda that emphasizes economic growth is the current trend in many developing countries. The argument advanced for taking such a development path is that a high economic growth fuels expansion of non-economic components of development (such as health and education and vice versa) thus propelling overall development. It is assumed that a high economic growth allows for a bigger budget allocation for human resource development and health which will in turn sustain the growth. This theory has been proven to be successful in the East Asian experience (World Development Report 1991). In the light of this, many countries invest heavily in higher education aiming for sustainable economic growth. However, contrary to popular belief, Wrinkler (1990) argues that subsidized public higher education actually benefits higher income groups more than lower income groups. Wrinkler's claim poses a serious concern for social scientists who are concerned with the social equity aspects of development.

Typical neoliberalism prioritizes economic concerns above social equity and it seems to have influenced the current goal orientation of universities on vocational preparation and national needs, according to the academic participants of this study.

Academic vs. Development Model

Coleman's (1984) dual-model of universities distinguishes between "academic" and "development" models. He argues that the latter is more adequate for developing countries where the universities should relate research and teaching to the indigenous culture and the practical problems of development. The first university in Malaysia, (UM, a transplant of the British university model) has been criticized for not catering or attending to local problems. Hence, in 1971 UKM was established to link university research and teaching more closely to the indigenous and national needs of Malaysia. UKM, which means "The National University of Malaysia" was so named to reflect this philosophy and ideology. The "development university model" has guided the development trend of universities in Malaysia since the early 1970s. It is not surprising therefore, that the economic tool model of the university is even more strongly entrenched today, as revealed by this study.

The world-wide trend in university reform indicates that philosophical incantations about the traditional mission of the university have fallen out of fashion. Scott (1993) points out that Newman's traditional idea of a university or the scholarly haven model has been generally absorbed into literature of reminiscence and regret (Bloom, 1987; Oakeshott, 1989). Other literature (for example, the Robbin's Report of 1963 in Britain) managed to be both philosophical (thus continuing the Newman tradition) and practical, but failed to articulate an alternative vision of the university. This is followed by a pragmatic and even technocratic approach to university policy research with an emphasis on management and accountability.

More recently, the role of universities has been studied using a broad social and cultural analysis. "In it higher education features as the producer of cultural capital, engaged in the formation of national, professional and technical elites, the agents of modernity.." (Scott, 1993, p. 7). Scott cites examples of such macro-analyses of the purposes of universities, including books by Bell (1973, 1976), Parson & Platt's (1973) analysis based on functionalist theories, Habermas's (1987, 1990) analysis of the place of universities in the culture of modernity and the process of modernization and the key role of knowledge institutions in Giddens'(1990) theories of globalization. As Scott (1993) out, "the detailed aims of universities as understood in the rhetorical tradition that stretches back to Newman, do not figure in these broad social and cultural analyses..." (p. 7).

Scott is of the opinion that the idea of the university must be explored in terms different from the rhetorical discourses. Attempts to provide the university with a fundamental text and an authoritative constitution have been polemical. Each of the past attempts to do so was usually a prisoner of its own time. A case in point is the universities in Nazi Germany. Some historians according to Scott, have argued that "the passivity of the German universities demonstrated the infirmity of their philosophical ideals in the face of Nazi challenge. Universities seemed to have been betrayed by their high-minded ideals more than by their practical engagement..." (Scott, 1993, p. 5).

Historically, the university has been able to adapt to the changing socio-economic context and radical shifts in science and intellectual culture. Because of this adaptative capacity, Scott argues that the university remains a powerful and pervasive institution in modern society today. Fincher (1993), like Scott, feels that there is no choice but to discuss the idea of the university in pragmatic terms (such as how the university can respond to the challenges of the day) so that it can continue to survive as a important institution in the future. They believe that it is "possible to construct 'an idea of the university' that is rooted in practice but has normative force" (Scott, p.8). Although the future university would be a different kind of institution, "it would still be recognizable as a university" (Fincher, 1993, p. 27), meaning that the fundamental academic characteristics of the university might be retained.

Scott's emphasis on the adaptive capacity of the university presumes a structural-functionalist perspective, suggesting consensus rather than conflict involved in the process of change. Scott's analysis underplays the role of human agency in the change process. Standing in marked contrast to Scott's consensus perspective is the conflict perspective which focuses on the tensions and contradictions and the importance of human agency in the process of social change. Scott's "adaptive capacity" of the university is in contrast to the reflexive university which is service-oriented to business interests (Pannu et al. 1994).

Drawing on the conflict perspective, this study identifies what the academic staff of two universities in Malaysia perceive about the goals of their institutions. It seeks to understand the ideals of these academics and contrast them with the goals that are currently emphasized by their universities. In so doing, the study illuminates the contradictions between the two different perceptions about the purpose of the universities and the tensions among the academics regarding them. These contradictions and tensions must be understood within Malaysia's changing context. The landscape of Malaysia is being shaped by the current capitalist economic transformation and by shifts in social and political power. The study reveals that academics' rhetoric about the role of universities in this context of national development is important for charting a "pragmatic" course so that Malaysian universities can help determine ways to accommodate the fast-changing needs of the Malaysian society. The pragmatic approach would be for the university to take into consideration the reality of change and the need for continuity of its traditional role.

Furthermore, the pragmatic approach would subsequently aim for a balance between change and continuity in order to maintain its integrity.

A pragmatic approach would start with the identification of the fundamental purpose of university education based on the academic haven model. For example, the university must first identify what its primary goals are according to the basic characteristics and distinctive features of this model. Without compromising on these goals, the pragmatic approach would have to determine how universities can accommodate the challenges and demands of the changing society and recognize what universities can and cannot do. Universities would need to "educate" both the public and government. This pragmatic approach would prevent the scarce and expensive university resources from being "stretched" too thinly.

Furthermore, university authorities and academics have to recognize that universities have something to offer to developmental needs, and re-orient their thinking: "start not with what the market requires but with what we see ourselves as having to sell" (Prickett, 1994,p. 171). Additionally, the academics and university authorities need to be aware of the joint pressure on the university under the banner of national development from the *de facto* alliance between the state and the business interests. To this end, Malaysian universities must also take cognizance of the university goal-related issues that emerged from the study.

University Goal-related Issues

The study raises several broader issues that are pertinent to the development of higher education in Malaysia. Most of these issues are not new in the history of university development in advanced countries. The nature of some current issues in Malaysia is also taking on new forms. The issues are mediated by the changing context of rapid industrialization and economic growth as the country moves from the status of a developing country to a developed one.

The study exposes the tensions and conflict about university goals that reflect two phenomena currently occurring in Malaysia which have far-reaching implications for the university: (1) the expansion and massification of higher education, and (2) the development of a "market ideology" in the Malaysian political economy. The impact of these two phenomena on the university is already manifesting itself.

Expansion and Massification of Higher Education

Since the second half of the 20th century, all higher education systems have to struggle with massification in higher education. Massification occurs as a result of greater accessibility to higher education and is part of a wider democratic process and social revolution. This process was exemplified first in the American, then the continental European universities, followed by the British, and now is affecting Malaysia, a potential NIC (newly industrializing country) in Asia,

Current development in Malaysia attests to the expansion and massification of higher education and the growth of universities to accommodate the increasing student enrolment. Before 1969, there was only one university; today there are nine. The increase in student enrolment continues to be rapid; the total university student population in 1995 is approaching 90,000, an increase of 49% since 1990 (Sixth Malaysia Plan: 1990-95).

Massification in higher education is usually accompanied by "deteriorating" standards. The study clearly identifies concerns among academic staff about deteriorating university student quality and academic standards. The established academic tradition and other long-standing characteristics of the university in Malaysia are already being altered. The academics are concerned and the findings indicate that they feel massification of higher education is likely to intensify and the impact on university ethos and standards may become irreversible.

Commodification of Higher Education

Massification has also been accompanied by the commodification of higher education. The knowledge, skills and social prestige associated with university education have become commodities to be sold and purchased. Commodification of higher education is an accelerating trend in Malaysia. This trend is illustrated by the recent mushrooming of private colleges and the diverse proliferation in their twinning programs with foreign universities. Both academics and the government are seriously concerned about these developments. The academics are concerned about the quality of the learning process and educational standards whilst the government is concerned about the commercial exploitation in education. These private colleges operate as business enterprises and offer their educational programs as commercial products to be purchased at competitive prices based on speedy course completion. Private college education has become a thriving business in Malaysia, attracting many foreign universities from the English-speaking Western countries.

In Malaysia, higher education is highly prized for its economic value because the economic reward system is such that disproportionately higher salaries go to graduates than to non-graduates. For example, the public employment sector categorizes government employees as officers and non-officers according to whether they possess a university degree. Additionally, white collar jobs are usually held by university graduates and they offer salaries far above those of blue collar jobs. This reward system, which is characteristic in most developing countries, makes higher education a very attractive investment for the Malaysians. In short, higher education is very closely linked to socio-economic mobility.

In the light of this, the state-funded universities of UM and UKM currently face the loss of good students to the shorter and more vocationally-oriented degree programs of the private colleges. The impact of this change has found its way into the state-funded universities. The study reveals that academic staff rank vocational preparation as the second most important goal in UM and UKM, second only to national needs.

This growing vocationalism of higher education has profound implications for the Malaysian university. The changing socio-economic context in the country has triggered a transformation in higher education which is eroding the intellectual environment. The universities need to ensure that the pattern and content of new university courses and the values they transmit are not dictated purely by economic considerations alone.

This study reveals that there is already a drift away from conventional disciplines and conventional patterns of university research. University curriculum and research are being reorganized with a new focus on commercial value that are being integrated as important aspects in the university programs and research, especially the traditional programs in the sciences and humanities. This new focus is illustrated by the establishment in 1995, of new faculties like the Computer Science Faculty at UM, and also in the introduction of new programs and courses (such as "mass communications" and "human development") that have obvious vocational appeal to students.

Curriculum and Disciplines

The impact of massification of higher education in Malaysia is such that the university must address the needs of students from an increasing range of abilities and interests. University curricula can be repackaged and restructured to cater to the different types of students (mature students, the elite and the masses) who seek university education. A suggestion is to develop various programs; for example, strong undergraduate programs (in the liberal arts and sciences as well as professional programs such as in law, medicine, engineering, business and education) for the masses; a professional upgrading and continuing education for the mature students and working professionals; and graduate programs in the traditional academic disciplines for the elite few. The latter (graduate) programs could be pegged to research (Humboldt model) and scholarship (Newman's ivory tower model or Newson & Buchbinder's academic haven) with a focus on the advancement of existing knowledge or creation of new knowledge. On the other hand, the undergraduate and professional programs, modelled on Kerr's multiversity or Newson & Buchbinder's economic tool model, couched in diversity and pragmatism and focused on the transmission and application of expert knowledge to solve practical problems, would have vocational appeal to the masses. Such a university program structure would reconcile the traditional idea of a university with the idea of the modern multi-purpose university in a fast changing environment. A multi-purpose university would serve the diverse needs and interests of its pluralistic participants, constituencies, stakeholders, etc., while the graduate and research programs would serve the wishes of the traditional academics in Malaysia who cherish the scholarly haven model of a university. Malaysian universities are relatively young, (the oldest being only thirty years old), and that they still focus primarily on teaching more than research. They should simultaneously strive to further develop the graduate programs while restructuring the existing undergraduate programs. This suggestion concurs with the recommendation of the recent World Bank Report (1994).

The traditional model of the European research university, i.e. a one-tier program structure is, according to the 1994 World Bank Report "expensive and inappropriate in the developing world" (p. 5). The World Bank, drawing lessons from recent experiences and consultations with higher education policy-makers as well as from experts from the academic world, recommends "increased differentiation in higher education, or the development of non-university institutions and encouragement of private institutions" [which] "can help meet the growing social demand for higher education and make higher education systems more responsive to changing labour market needs" (p. 5). The training programs of non-university institutions (such as polytechnics, professional and technical institutes, community colleges, and the university affiliated distance education and open learning programs) usually cost less and hence are more affordable for a larger pool of students.

The World Bank report points out that differentiation efforts have been the most extensive and effective in Asia where the governments spend less per student on higher education than in other regions, but achieve higher coverage through increased differentiation. Hence the report concludes that these experiences provide important lessons for the rest of the developing world.

Wealth creation

The most pervasive idea of a university at the close of the 20th century has been "hard-wired into wealth creation" (Scott, 1993, p.8). In fact, at times, this idea seems to have become the university's primary justification. Knowledge itself is conceived as the primary means of wealth creation in a hi-tech society which is information-based. The danger though, is that universities will become the servant of those who define "wealth" and oversee its creation. Universities are increasingly subordinate to those who define what is worthwhile knowledge in material terms. These key players are likely to be outside rather than inside the academic system (Scott, 1993).

The findings of this study indicate that, among the Malaysian academic respondents, there is a strong belief in the link between the role of the university and wealth creation. Because of this, a definite qualitative change seems to be taking place in the relationship between the academic system and the socio-economic order in Malaysia.

Malaysian universities, which have always contributed to the production of skilled manpower, are under increasing pressure to perform this function above all others. There is a marked tendency to see higher education as an investment, particularly when the industrialization project as embodied in the Vision 2020 of Malaysia is currently a central force in Malaysia. The great emphasis is on the production of scientific and technological manpower for the industrializing economy. This appears to be the central role of higher education in Malaysia at the close of the 20th century.

The study reveals indirectly that university education in Malaysia is also currently viewed as an economic investment by the public. This concurs with the conclusion of the study by Mehmet and Yip (1986) who found that the private returns to university education makes it even more attractive an investment for students because higher education in Malaysia is heavily subsidized. In fact, the private returns for those on government scholarship range from 15 to 20 percent while the social rate of return is however much lower, around five percent (Mehmet & Yip, 1986).

As such, students are interested in higher education for technical knowledge that is closely related to opportunities in the job market. The bulk of the present university students seem to be unaware and even impatient with the disciplined university culture of the traditional academic elite. Undeniably, there is always a small proportion of people interested in engaging in the production of cultural knowledge but the motives of this elite group "are perhaps better explained in terms of patterns of cultural consumption rather than theories of investment in human capital" (Scott, 1993, p. 15). Examples of such "consuming" disciplines in the universities are to be found in the humanities, social and natural sciences.

Humanities and Social Sciences

The findings of the study indicate that the humanities and the social sciences in the Malaysian university are threatened by the current "obsession" with science and technology. The academic staff of UM and UKM across disciplines recognize that the place of humanities and social sciences must be not only maintained but also promoted along with the emphasis on science and technology. In this study, academics advance the argument that the humanities instil a humane and moral dimension in the educated labor force. Development of this value is particularly pertinent to mitigate increasing materialism arising from the current rapid growth of market economy in Malaysia. For this reason, the academic challenge is to develop a university curriculum or program that is balanced between the sciences and humanities. The liberal education philosophy in UKM, which requires all undergraduates to take some liberal education courses, seems to be well supported. The humanities, social sciences and natural sciences help to develop well-rounded professionals, not just narrow-focused technocrats. Therefore, the findings concur with the assertion by Husen (1991) that it is important to build a bridge between the humanities and the sciences, "the two cultures," thereby combining professional training with cultural enlightenment.

Wang (1992) argues that the great traditions - history, literature, philosophy and the fine arts - are universally recognized as relevant to the social and psychological health of communities. He further elaborates:

> The challenge to our universities is to bring enough fire and imagination to the study of the arts, to the humanities, to match the power of science and technology.... There can be little fire and no imagination to such study unless the universities can show that it is valuable, even essential, to our lives, and particularly to our own intellectual health (p. 27).

Many programs in the humanities (as well as in the behavioral and social sciences) could be redesigned so that they contribute more directly to an enlightened leadership (Fincher, 1993). Universities are well-recognized as having considerable expertise for the formal preparation of leadership in government, business and various professional fields. This is one way to defend the place of the so-called "useless" subjects of the social sciences and humanities against the forces of the market-place.

Challenge to Academic Authority

The traditionally established knowledge and values of the university are likely to be undermined by the acceleration of a technology-led modern economy. Even the importance of the academic scientific traditions of the university may be challenged by the argument that innovations occur anywhere in the workplace, "perhaps most often where science and the market meet" (Scott, 1993, p. 11). All these innovations have potentially grave consequences for the university's authoritative position in the creation of knowledge and its intellectual culture, particularly in natural and social sciences as well as the humanities.

As Malaysia enters the era of industrialization, the waning of intellectual orientation of the university is already occurring (see Tables 10, 11, 12). The strong emphases on vocational preparation and national needs relative to the emphasis on intellectual orientation among the current university goals are influenced by the government's development thrust on science and technology in meeting the demands of industries. The implied *de facto* alliance between the government and the capitalists threatens academic authority.

Furthermore, the managerial authority vested in the office of the vice-chancellor who is appointed by the government represents another source of control of the university. The challenge then, is for the academic staff to be aware of these implications and to restore the importance of intellectual authority. It is perhaps for these reasons that the academics of UM and UKM who took part in the study feel strongly that intellectual orientation and climate should be the two most important university goals (see Table 8). There is a rather large disparity between their preferred emphasis of these goals and what is perceived as the current emphasis assigned to them by their institutions (see Tables 16). It is crucial that these goals be accorded more emphasis to stimulate and boost the development of a robust intellectual culture in the university if it is to avoid losing its academic authoritative position.

Fundamental University Commitments

University goals reflect the impact of the transition from elite to mass higher education and the new societal culture that emphasizes economic and other extrinsic values of education. The findings of the study indicate that relatively greater emphasis is currently placed on the vocational and extrinsic value of university education.

The university's role is indeed influenced by public perceptions and expectations but the university is by no means helpless. There is much that it can and should do to educate the general public as well as its constituencies about its mission and role. The public needs to be reminded of the university's fundamental commitment to research and scholarship. This commitment should be the basis on which university learning, research, teaching and service are defined (Fincher, 1993). For instance, learning and research can be defined as the acquisition and advancement of knowledge; teaching as the dissemination and use of knowledge; and service as benefitting the society in general. Guided by such commitments, university leaders can consider ways to redesign more responsive programs and services that would resolve the conflict between the learning needs and interests of students and the teaching and research interests of the academics. Implicit in this potential reorganization is the willingness of the university to relegate those educational programs and services to other institutions which are best equipped for them. This should relieve universities of unnecessary burden of duplications that stretch their resources, talents and expertise.

Continuity and Change

Fincher (1993) suggests that the conflicts between disciplines be harmonized into a healthy tension between continuity and change, between "being" and "becoming" as the university readies itself for the 21st century. He further points out that continuity alone cannot be the vital driving force or be the only distinctive characteristic of the future university. Change is inevitable and the future university must address it. As a dynamic institution, it is stimulated vigorously by external pressures, cultural needs and demands as well as by internal forces within the university as Malaysian society moves from one phase of development to another. This maturing process brings with it the tension of "being" and "becoming." Hence, the future university should review its own stages of distinct development in terms of where it has been, what it is, how it came to be and where it should be going if it is to realize its potential for continuing its own development.

Teaching and learning (the essential concepts in the university's structure and functions) can accommodate major technological innovations of the contemporary era and the inherent and often subtle cultural changes and yet, still maintain academic integrity. Such a belief prevails among the academic participants in this study. The prevalence of this belief among Malaysian academics is important since the university is increasingly confronted with maintaining academic integrity. Challenges will not lessen in the years ahead. The university will increasingly be expected to serve national, regional and state priorities in a global economy that is technologically driven.

The trajectory of the development of universities experienced in the advanced industrialized countries forewarns about the impact of post-industrialization. Curricular emphasis on the applied disciplines, an increase in numbers of mature students, distance learning, the creation of extension faculty for upgrading professional qualifications, etc., are some major changes likely to impact on the academic ethos of universities. Although Malaysia is just entering the era of industrialization, those who are planning the future of universities should be alerted to these potential effects of post-industrialization. It will be difficult to maintain a balance between academic integrity and economic imperatives as Malaysia marches forward into the 21st century.

National Purpose vs. International Learning

In addition to accommodating the demands of the broader society which is currently dictated by the market ideology, another challenge confronting the universities in Malaysia is that of achieving a balance between satisfying the national economic imperatives on one hand, and developing international standards of academic scholarship and excellence on the other. The deliberate use of universities in Malaysia to produce an adequate supply of technical manpower for the technologically-driven economy can be said to reflect the particular variety of functional theory which Karabel & Halsey (1977) calls "technological functionalism." This theory emphasizes the rapidity of technological change which demands "army upon army of skilled technicians and professional experts" (Clark, 1962, cited in Karabel & Halsey, 1977, p. 9). Karabel and Halsey point out that while it was the most popular theory in educational research in the 1950s in the West, technological functionalism also served to justify educational growth, (e.g. educational expansion and differentiation) in the post-war period throughout the world.

The intensification of the deliberate use of universities for national purposes and the internationalization of university learning are two contradictory forces on institutions of higher learning throughout the world presently (Kerr, 1990). While the university through its basic commitment to advancing universal knowledge, is an international institution, it must also adapt itself to its own society. Kerr describes this dilemma of the university as one of being perched between "a mythical academic Heaven and a sometimes actual earthly Hell" (Kerr 1990, p.5). Kerr points out that these two conditions are almost antagonistic to each other because universal learning is an individual matter and mostly for its own sake; whilst national purpose responds to the wishes of those who govern and who are interested in the uses of learning. The question is: which of these two goals should the university serve - the universal truth or the particularized power? The answer to this question depends on the relationship of the university to the different constituents in the society, an issue that is discussed in the next part of this chapter.

Part II: Relationships of the University

As alluded to in the above discussion, a more realistic vision of the university's mission and goals and its future role must take into consideration its relationship to the government and to the business sector. Legalized state control of the universities and the growing university-industry linkage within a booming market economy provide the context for the restructuring of Malaysian universities.

Pannu et al. (1994) observe that university restructuring is currently occurring globally and they provide a comprehensive account of this process of change and its ramifications for university's autonomy and position. While the universities in many advanced western countries are restructuring because of a deep fiscal crisis and resulting budget cuts - primarily caused by the retrenchment of the welfare state - the Malaysian universities are being pressured to accommodate to the needs of a booming economy that is being integrated into the global capitalist market system. To accommodate government priorities and industrial needs, Malaysian universities are currently being restructured. Consequently, their institutional autonomy and the professional autonomy of their academic staff are being threatened.

Institutional Autonomy

The concept of autonomy is as ancient as universities themselves and it has been "a key ingredient in the ideology of institutions of higher learning" (Albornoz, 1991, p.205). Essentially it means self-rule and independent decision-making. This freedom encompasses many areas, including research, teaching, curricula matters, the production and distribution of knowledge, administration and management, finance, student and staff selection, recruitment and promotion. In essence, an autonomous university is free to make decisions and act independently. For example, it can respond to the internationalization of learning and other internal initiatives without external constraints. In short, university autonomy assumes that the institution is not dictated to, or constrained by any power external to itself (Warnock, 1992).

The literature review in Chapter 3 discussed the importance of autonomy in terms of achieving university outcome goals, particularly with respect to knowledge advancement and learning. The scholarly haven model assumes that the best in educators' and researchers' creativity and initiatives are drawn out under autonomous working conditions. The advocates of this model argue that fruitful research, excellent teaching and scholarship requiring originality of thought, creativity and critical thinking can occur only under highly autonomous conditions when there are no external constraints or restrictions that threaten or impede the development of these processes. The autonomous university nurtures intellectual exploration, so the argument goes, pushing forward the frontiers of knowledge which, in their view, is the primary task of the university. The issue of autonomy is therefore associated with the development of a high intellectual culture within the university. This element is perceived to be currently lacking in Malaysian universities.

University-government Relationship

In Malaysia the link between universities and the government has been historically strong. The establishment of the university is controlled under the Parliamentary Act. The Malaysian educational system is highly centralized and UM and UKM are state-funded universities which are almost entirely financed by the central government. Not surprisingly, the latter is strongly represented in the University Council, the most powerful body in the university organization which approves financial matters. In addition, the Vice-chancellor of the university is appointed by the Minister of Education. University staff recruitment, appointment and promotion in the university and student admissions are also controlled by the government. Although academic matters are approved by the University Senate, programs of study need final approval by the government. Thus professional academic authority is subordinate to a large extent to the civil administrative authority.

A high degree of government control is inversely related to university autonomy, democratic university governance and academic freedom. This study found that the academics do not believe that these process goals are being accorded due importance by their universities. The degree of disparity between the current and preferred emphases on these goals is relatively large (see Table 13). The involvement of government in the affairs of the university is viewed by the academics as being intrusive and excessive, although they welcome some government intervention and participation in the non-academic aspects of university. Their preference is for a higher degree of relative autonomy as this would nurture the development of an academic climate conducive to furthering intellectual growth. It is their perception that such a positive climate currently is not accorded due importance in either UM or UKM. This may account for their feeling that their role has become less effective over the last ten years (Table 30).

Autonomy-accountability Debate

Universities that emphasize the pursuit of knowledge and truth have been criticized as being preoccupied with a narrow range of interests that have relatively little or no social and economic relevance. As such, they are often accused of being indifferent to the contemporary problems of the world outside. They have been derogatively described as "ivory-towers." The human capital theorists who expound the economic tool university model argue that universities should share in the responsibility of addressing the more immediate concerns of society, such as meeting the manpower needs for economic development.

This functionalist view argues that universities have a role to play in national development, especially in developing countries such as Malaysia. Furthermore, when the universities are funded extensively by the state, such as the Malaysian case, they are expected to be accountable. Against this view is the argument that national development is a "class project" catering particularly to the interests of policy-makers, who define the national development agenda in ways that certain social groups may not have the same stake.

The debate and struggle for autonomy has been an exciting chapter in the history of university development. Today autonomy remains a hot issue for universities throughout the world, both in advanced and developing countries. In Britain, for instance, university autonomy is supposedly a matter of negotiation between the state and the educational institution (Warnock, 1992). The existence of independent bodies such as the University Grants Committee in Britain is supposed to act as a buffer between the state and the university, thereby maintaining the university's financial autonomy. This arrangement assumes that the interaction between the state and the university is along lines of equal relationship with neither power imposing its pre-determined criteria on the other except through a process of discussion and debate. Whether such democratic procedures in British universities are adhered to in practice is questionable, especially since Thatcher's rule which was dominated by policies of economic accountability.

This study indicates, however, that in Malaysia the autonomy-accountability debate seems to lean in favor of accountability to the state. The current Malaysian national development quest to be an industrialized nation by the year 2020 urgently requires the universities to embark on research that is focused on government-identified strategic areas of science and technology. The universities are also called upon to produce a skilled workforce needed for the more technology-intensive and information-based industries to enable the nation to compete in the global market economy.

In developing countries, the issue of university autonomy is often linked closely to the political regime in power (Albornoz, 1991). Because these countries have a relatively shorter tradition of state democracy and are faced with pressing national development needs, their governments tend to exert great influence on the university. Governments thus often impinge upon university autonomy because such governments are highly dependent upon the universities for achieving the national goals of economic development and political integration. Malaysian education - especially higher education - has mostly been used as an economic and political instrument. Furthermore, when universities are state-funded to a great extent (such as in the case of Malaysia), they are usually subject to state intervention that is often legalized through legislative power. Thus, for example, the university-government relationship in Malaysia is highly regulated by the Universities and University Colleges Act of 1971. Deliberations on amendments to this Act are currently under way to make provisions for the introduction of new initiatives with respect to university instruction, corporatization of the university, and the development of private universities in Malaysia as ways of liberalizing higher education. These initiatives are prompted by economic considerations primarily influenced by the World Bank's recommendations contained in its 1994 documents. Hence, the globalization of the Malaysian economy is having a dramatic impact on Malaysian universities.

University Management

A cadre of senior managers and experts, drawn from both the academic and administrative staff, must be formed to ensure the institution's integrity and accountability in terms of its resources and academic mission. Accountability for managing allocated budgets should encompass decision-making, the establishment of priorities and even the negotiation with external agents without frequent interference from the government. Universities need a much flatter and more flexible hierarchy in place of rigid bureaucracies. Looser structures and flatter hierarchies will help to restore the climate in which academic integrity can be protected. These measures would help address the current problems of excessive bureaucratic red tape and the overly centralized university administration system which is revealed in this study. Such a management and administrative structure in Malaysian universities would help restore the institutional autonomy, a key precondition to meeting the challenges confronting them. Universities have the ability and responsibility to diminish external intrusiveness by developing their own internal mechanism of accountability thereby averting external pressures from shaping their priorities and eroding their autonomy (Fishbein, 1982).

University-private Sector Linkage

Apart from the government as a major external force that impinges on university autonomy, the influence of the private sector is another outside force with which universities have to contend. Which of these two forces most undermine university autonomy varies from one country to another. For instance, the literature review indicated that in general, North American universities generally are confronted more with the dominance of the corporate sector than with the government (Newson and Buchbinder, 1988). This trend implies that American universities are pressured to cater to the demands of the market forces and their business sector sponsors.

University-industry linkage has been debated and strongly opposed by the "academic oligarchy." But according to the human capital exponents, linking universities with the market would help to break down the traditional wall of the "ivory tower." This study of Malaysian universities suggests that, generally, the academic staff of UM and UKM view the university-industry linkage in a positive light. They feel that linkages with the private sector would help to restore the usefulness of the universities in the eyes of the public. In fact, consultancy units have been set up within the university organization to sell university consultation expertise and service to the public and private sectors. The establishment of these units appears to be well received by the academics for two main reasons. First, it offers the opportunity for academics to earn extra income both for the university and for themselves. Secondly, both the university's public image and the role of academics are enhanced when their expertise is sought. However, it should be pointed out that the advantages of the university-industry linkage for the university and its academic staff can be tapped only when such a relationship is equal and the professional autonomy of the academics is respected. However, Malaysian industries are unlikely to grow to the magnitude of the multinational corporations in North America, and therefore the potential danger related to the control of universities by industries (to which many authors in the literature review in Chapter 3 draw attention) seems unlikely to occur in Malaysia.

Professional Autonomy and Role of Academics

Professional autonomy for academics is important for two main reasons. First and foremost, academics have a moral responsibility to be intellectually honest with their students. Occasionally they may have to present to students points of view or ideas that conflict with the orthodoxies of the community. It is therefore imperative that academic rights be defined so that the value of intellectual inquiry can be either respected by the community or defended collectively by academics. The moral responsibility of academics, which is first to their students and then only indirectly to the community, can be dispensed only if academics have some autonomy.

A second argument in favour of ensuring greater autonomy to academics is that it would release their creative energies and encourage their innovativeness. These are crucial to a profession that is concerned with education and the development of ideas. For this reason, autonomy has been cherished and defensively protected by the academia.

While academics should take a more personal responsibility for defining their working conditions and the goals of their university to guarantee the transmission of intellectual culture to future generations, the institution must protect the rights of its academic staff to carry out their professional responsibilities. The findings of the study strongly indicate the presence of excessive government control over Malaysian universities. Since this poses an obstacle to the development of academic professionalism (autonomy, integrity, commitment), the university administrative and management structure needs to be reorganized to safeguard the professional autonomy of academics and to ensure that the working conditions and institutional arrangements would not deny them the essential ingredient of professionalism. During the interviews, the academics hinted at the presence of government anti-academic attitude, resulting in their feeling of being marginalized professionally. If these trends continue, "the academic voice will become increasingly peripheral in decisions that affect the directions of the university" (Newson and Buchbinder, 1988, p. 29).

Conclusion

The study identifies the developmental trends of universities in Malaysia. The emerging university model could be described as a utilitarian one. It caters to national industrialization needs. The study also raises several broader issues which present themselves as concerns and challenges for the academics as well as for the Malaysian universities. These issues are related to the intensifying massification and commodification of higher education and the "market ideology" that is currently pervasive in the Malaysian political economy. The conflicts and tensions within the universities are further exacerbated by excessive government control over the universities which indirectly interferes with their ability to meet the challenges confronting them. Declining standards and the erosion of intellectual culture, the challenge to academic authority, accountability vs. autonomy, humanities vs. science and technology, and national purpose vs. international learning, are all issues that are not new in the history of university development. These issues are intensifying in Malaysia as the country enters the industrialization era. Underlying all these issues are varied but intense forces pushing for change; forces that have opposing tendencies which the university must reconcile. There are lessons to be learnt from the advanced universities in the West which will help in the construction of the idea of university for 21st century Malaysia. However, this reconciliation must be made within a particular context specific to national development and global forces. More importantly, reconciliation must not compromise the primary aims of universities to scholarship and research. The university is the cumulative result of various opposing tendencies operating both within and external to the university itself. Nevertheless, the university should establish its own model in response to these forces.

Contributions of the Study

The study is important for three main reasons. First, it focuses on the role of the university in national development. In Malaysia, this is a contemporary issue, both relevant and significant.

Secondly, the study provides useful insights for those who are concerned with university planning and development in readiness for the 21st century, namely university planners and policy makers, as well as university managers, administrators and academics. It is important that these groups understand that institutional structures designed to facilitate development depend on skilled human agents for successful implementation. Hence, in designing new structures the planners need to take cognizance of the views of academics while the latter should feel empowered by this recognition and take a serious responsibility for their role in influencing the direction of university development.

The academics should also find the study useful as its findings provide insights into the collective view of their members about the university's role, against which they can compare their own. The study hopefully stimulates an awareness among the academics about the complex nature of university goals which are related to their work. The data from the survey questionnaires and interviews that were conducted as part of the study presented avenues for the expression of their views and opinions about their work, and the challenges faced by them as academics in the current era of rapid industrialization. The study also reveals the challenges faced by the universities as vital institutions within the current socio-economic and political context of Malaysia. This new understanding is important if the academics are to carry out their professional role effectively.

Finally, although the substantive focus of the study is confined to the perceptions of academics of only two universities in Malaysia, it illuminates issues of a national nature about the role of universities. The findings of this study of the Malaysian case and the insights offered therein, are useful for comparative purposes. In this way, the study contributes to advancing the knowledge on the larger field of university and development. Additionally, the study contributes to the further understanding of universities as dynamic social institutions within a fast growing economy of a developing country.

Final Reflections

As this study is a descriptive case study of only two selected universities in Malaysia, using the "available subjects" sampling approach, it recognizes that the generalizability of the findings to other institutions of academic staff may be limited. It also recognizes that, because of the low response rate of the survey questionnaire used in this study and the fact that the interviewees were also drawn from the questionnaire respondents, caution must be exercised in interpreting the findings and conclusions. Nevertheless, the conclusions generated from the findings could be "tested" to determine their generalizability by subsequent research. Follow-up research aimed at finding out the views of the non-respondents of this study would also be worthwhile.

While this study shares the limitations of a case study in which external validity has been identified as the single greatest weakness, external validity is not the main quality sought in this study. Wolcott (1990) argues that, except for the hypothetical-deductive types of research, validity serves most often as a gloss for scientific accuracy among those who identify closely with science. For the social sciences generally and specifically for this study, correctness or credibility are more important. It is necessary to reiterate that the more important quality in this study is that the findings should stimulate new insights. It is important as well, to reiterate that this study aims to describe and explain a social phenomenon rather than test a specific hypothesis. The concern about the lack of generalizability in case-study research, is countered by the argument that the "case study ... does not represent a 'sample', and the investigator's goal is to expand and generalize theories (analytic generalization) and not to enumerate frequencies (statistical generalization)" (Yin, 1989, p. 21).

While external validity may not be the main quality that is sought in this research, internal validity is important for analytic generalization in order to expand and generalize theories. For this reason, the researcher has closely applied validity-enhancing procedures throughout the various stages in the research process. Validity in the construction of the questionnaire and the interview schedule was dealt with in Chapter 5. Additionally, in conducting the interviews the researcher adhered closely to validity-enhancing procedures suggested by Wolcott (1990). Adhering to these procedures enhanced the credibility and correctness of the data. Furthermore, the multiple sourcing of data (survey and interview and documents) used in this case-study provides an effective check on bias, thus contributing to the validity of the conclusions and the insights that result from the study.

Closely related to the issue of validity is the issue of reliability, which means the extent to which the study's findings can be replicated, implying that the "measurements" are stable and consistent and reproducible. It is recognized that in social science research such as this, in which the entities themselves are humans who are constantly changing, reliability (like external validity) poses a herculean problem for the researchers.

As this research is a case study in which the perceptions of the respondents are influenced by the unique conditions, circumstances and events of a changing context, (unlike an experimental research which controls and manipulate the conditions for the purpose of the research) it is recognized that it might be difficult to replicate the findings of the study. Even the perceptions of the respondents in the same universities may be different at different times, let alone the perceptions of those in other universities.

Another important point pertains to the theoretical approach of the study. Although the conflict perspective played some role in shaping the framework of the study, an eclectic approach is, in fact used in the analysis to explain the role of university in Malaysia in the context of its national development. Insights from the conflict perspective are useful in raising an awareness that the university role in Malaysia is impacted by the *de-facto* alliance between business and the state which is brought about by the imperatives of the current global economic restructuring. Because there is a tendency for universities to serve state-business common economic interest, an awareness of this among the academics is important to ensure that they do not neglect the responsibility to the other groups as part of their primary functions is to civilize society in general. It is crucial for the university to mediate the relationship between the relatively autonomous state and rather weak civil society in Malaysia.

Characterized by a relatively weak civil society, Malaysia is a developmental state in which "political purposes and institutional structures have been developmentally-driven, while her developmental objectives have been politically-driven" (Leftwich, 1995, p. 401). Leftwich further points out that "developmental states do not fall obviously into either the Marxist or Weberian traditions of state theories" (p. 420). Hence these state theories developed to describe the social, economic and political relationships in Western nations do not adequately explain the phenomena in Malaysia and other newly industrializing countries (NICs) which subscribe to the East Asian model of economic development.

This study has generated findings which can be hypothesized and "tested" in studies in other developing Asian countries with similar conditions and undergoing similar changes. It is important to reiterate that an important factor in this study is the context of the case under study - the interplay of the changing socio-economic and political conditions - and its impact on the changing role of the university.

Suggestions for Further Research

More case studies on the changing role of the university in other countries will provide interesting comparisons with the findings and conclusions of this study. Even within Malaysia, a nation-wide survey of the changing role of universities could be conducted to "test" the generalizability of the findings of this study.

The findings of this study have been based primarily on quantitative data which are only elaborated by interview data. The main part of the survey questionnaire in the study was modified from the IGI. As mentioned earlier, the IGI is essentially a tool for obtaining consensus about university goals in the United States and as such, there are obvious limitations in its use. It would be interesting to compare the findings of this study to those from a similar study that draws primarily from interview data that are supported by quantitative data instead.

Also, as mentioned earlier, it will be interesting to conduct a follow-up of this study, focusing on the views of the non-respondents of this study, as well as the views of other groups, i.e., senior administrators, students, government officials etc. Another study on the views of the academics across disciplines might be worthwhile because the findings of this study suggest that there might be differences in their perceptions regarding the changing role of the Malaysian university, for example, between the social sciences and the technical sciences, and also between the applied and the pure disciplines, etc. Their different views have been alluded to throughout the report of this study but this could not be elaborated owing to insufficient data. The findings and conclusions of all these studies will certainly expand our knowledge of the role of universities in comparative context.

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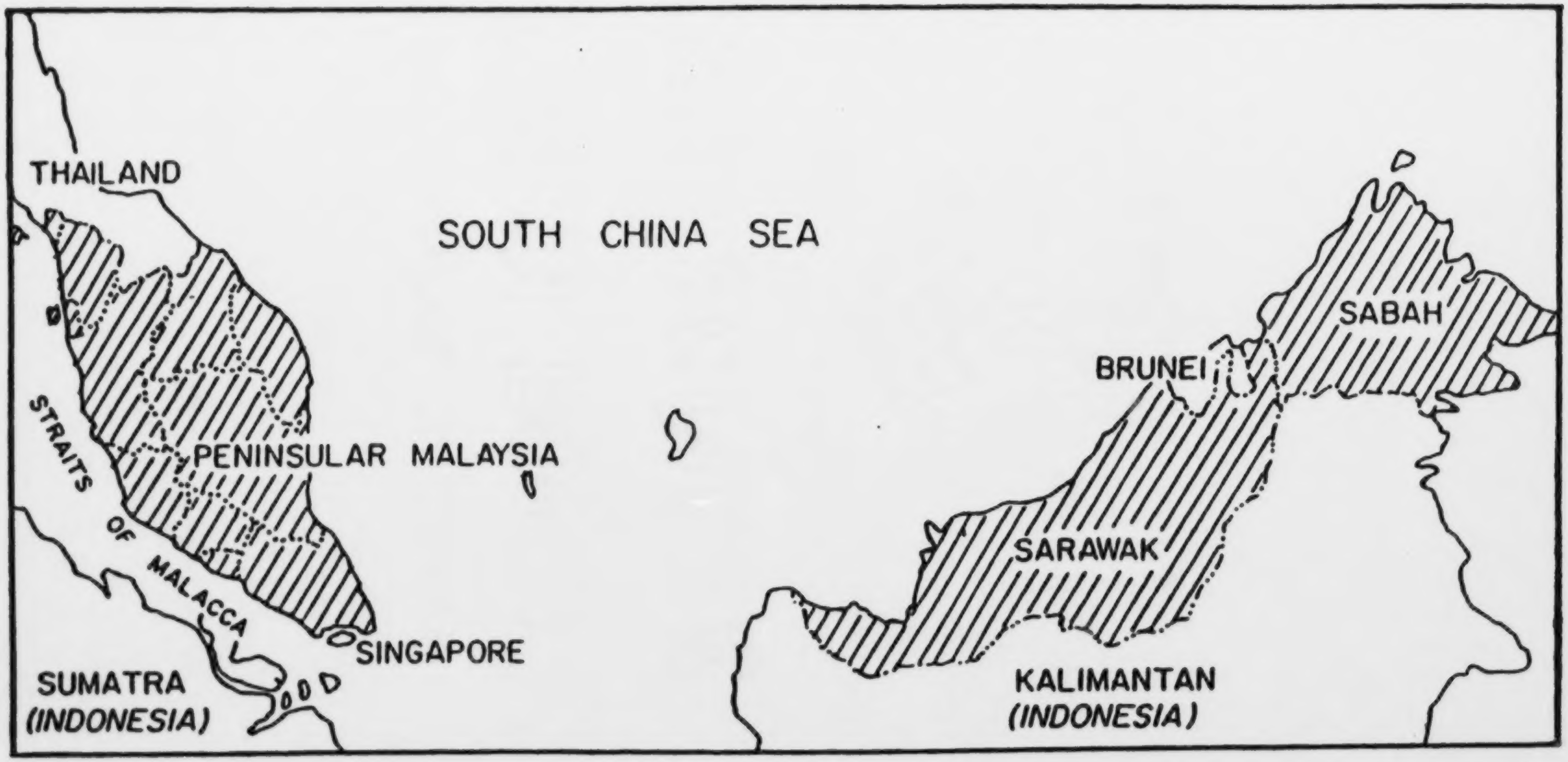
MALAYSIA


THAILAND
SOUTH CHINA SEA
SABAH
BRUNEI
STRAITS OF MALACCA
PENINSULAR MALAYSIA
SARAWAK
SINGAPORE
SUMATRA
(INDONESIA)
KALIMANTAN
(INDONESIA)

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX B

BUDGET ALLOCATION FOR TERTIARY EDUCATION 1986 - 1995 (IN MALAYSIAN $ MILLION)

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	5TH MALAYSIA PLAN Expenditure	6TH MALAYSIA PLAN Allocation
Preschool	0	140
Primary Education	760	1,020
Secondary Education	1,543	2,003
Higher Education	1,727	2,591
College	385	616
University		
UM (1962)	80	326
USM (1969)	183	255
UKM (1971)	53	325
UPM (1972)	82	276
UTM (1972)	372	324
UIA (1983)	62	325
UUM (1984)	511	144
UMAS (1990)	n.a.	n.a.
UMS (1994)	n.a.	n.a.
TOTAL	**4,030**	**5,754**

Source: Sixth Malaysia Plan:1990-1995, p. 183

Key:

UM	*Universiti Malaya*
USM	*Universiti Sains Malaysia*
UKM	*Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia*
UPM	*Universiti Pertanian Malaysia*
UTM	*Universiti Teknologi Malaysia*
UIA	*Universiti Islamic Antarabangsa*
UUM	*Universiti Utara Malaysia*
UMAS	*Universiti Malaysia Sarawak*
UMS	*Universiti Malaysia Sabah*

APPENDIX C

DESCRIPTION AND GOAL STATEMENTS OF THE FOURTEEN GOAL AREAS

OUTCOME GOALS:

1. **Social egalitarianism**

a) Provide educational experiences relevant to current to current issues in Malaysia

b) Provide educational experience relevant to the concerns of various ethnic groups

c) Help disadvantaged communities acquire knowledge and skills to improve conditions in their own communities

2) **Social criticism/activism**

a) Provide critical evaluation of prevailing practices and values in Malaysian societies

b) Serve as a source of ideas for changing social institutions judged to be unjust or defective

c) Encourage students to take an active role in improving society

3) **Vocational preparation**

a) Provide retraining opportunities for individuals to update their expertise

b) Develop educational programs geared to new and emerging career fields e.g. hi-tech, counselling human resource development

c) Provide opportunities for students to prepare for professions e.g. education, law, medicine, etc

4) **National needs**

a) Concentrate on meeting national needs

b) Be responsive to national priorities (e.g. as in Vision 2020)

c) Focus university resources on the solution of national problems e.g. environmental and social problems (drug abuse, poverty)

5) **Research**

a) Perform research for business and industry

b) Conduct pure research for the advancement of knowledge

c) Perform research for government

6) **Humanism/Altruism**

a) Encourage students to become more conscious of the important moral issues of our time

b) Help students understand and respect people from diverse backgrounds and cultures

c) Encourage students to become committed to world peace and more concerned about the welfare of mankind

7) **Cultural/Aesthetic awareness**

a) Provide cultural leadership and preserve cultural heritage

b) Increase students' appreciation of various art forms and expressions, both local and foreign

c) Provide opportunities for students to cultivate their aesthetic potentials

8) **Academic development**

a) Help students acquire depth for knowledge in at least one academic discipline

b) Ensure all students acquire a vatic knowledge in the humanities and social sciences

c) Prepare students for advanced academic work

9) **Intellectual Orientation**

a) Teach students methods of scholarly inquiry and research

b) Increase the desire and ability of students to undertake self-directed learning

c) Instill in students a life-long commitment to learning

PROCESS GOALS:

10) **Academic Freedom**

a) Ensure that students are not prevented from hearing speakers presenting controversial points of views

b) Place no restrictions on off-campus activities by lecturers and students

c) Protect the right of university lecturers to present controversial views in research and teaching

11) **Democratic Governance**

a) Decentralize decision-making on the campus to the greatest possible extent

b) Create a system of campus governance that is responsive to the concerns of all lecturers and students

c) Assure students and lecturers can be significantly involved or participate in campus governance

12) **Climate**

a) Maintain a campus climate in which communication is open and honest

b) Foster a campus climate of mutual trust and respect among students, lecturers and administrators

c) Maintain a climate in which lecturers' commitment to university goals is as strong as commitment to their own profession

13) **Accountability/Efficiency**

a) Apply cost criteria in deciding among alternative academic and non-academic programs

b) Regularly provide evidence that the university is achieving its stated goals

c) Be accountable to funding sources for the effectiveness of the university programs

14) **Autonomy**

a) Include agencies external to the university (example government, business) in planning university programs

b) Obtain majority support among university staff about the goals of the institution

c) Achieve a large degree of institutional autonomy or independence in relation to governmental and private sector

APPENDIX D

RELIABILITY OF GOAL ITEMS

GOAL AREAS	IS RESPONSES ALPHA	SHOULD RESPONSES ALPHA
Social Egalitarianism	.68	.57
Social Criticism	.83	.66
Vocational Preparation	.77	.70
National Needs	.80	.61
Research	.62	.49
Humanism/Altruism	.91	.80
Cultural Awareness	.87	.85
Academic Development	.73	.67
Intellectual Orientation	.92	.82
Freedom	.83	.67
Democratic Governance	.89	.69
Climate	.92	.78
Accountability	.68	.59
Autonomy	.78	.57

APPENDIX E

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

THE MALAYSIAN UNIVERSITY GOALS INVENTORY (MUGI)
Adapted from Institutional Goals Inventory (IGI)

January 24, 1994

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is designed to solicit the views of academic staff working in UKM and UM regarding the role of universities in development in Malaysia.

Your views are important to the success of this study which concerns the contemporary challenges faced by universities in Malaysia as the country implements the new development plans based on Vision 2020.

Please feel free to respond frankly to the questionnaire as your responses will be treated with the greatest respect and confidentiality. They will be used solely for the purpose of this study. The Questionnaire is in both English and Malay. Please use whichever version you prefer.

In addition to the survey questionnaire, I would like to meet with you to further discuss this topic. Please indicate in the section below if you could spare the time to meet with me and return it with the completed questionnaire by February 9, 1994. Thank you for your cooperation and participation in this study.

Yours Sincerely,

Laykim

Mrs. Thong Lay Kim
Faculty of Education
University of Malaya, 59100 Kuala Lumpur.
Tel: 757-2433; Fax: 756-5506

==

PLEASE RETURN THIS SECTION WITH YOUR COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE.

I am willing to meet with you to further share my views on the topic with you.

Name: ____

Department: ____

Faculty: ____

University: UKM / UM (please delete where necessary)

I can be reached at the following telephone number: ____________

Signature: ....

FAKULTI PENDIDIKAN
UNIVERSITI MALAYA
59100 KUALA LUMPUR

Tel: 037572433
Fax: 7565506
Telex: MA 39845

Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, 59100 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

24th January, 1994

Dear Professors, Assoc. Prof., Lecturers and Colleagues,

Mrs. Thong Lay Kim is a lecturer at the Faculty of Education, University of Malaya. She is conducting a study on the role of the university in national development in Malaysia and requires to obtain your views on this contemporary topic. As we implement the new development plans which aim at making Malaysia a developed and industrialized country, universities need to re-examine their role. This study is therefore timely and most relevant. The findings of the study would be of national interest and they would be useful to all who are concerned with education in Malaysia. I hope that you will give Mrs Thong the cooperation and assistance she needs to obtain the necessary data for this study.

Thank You.

Yours Sincerely,

Dato' Mohd Yunus Mohd Noor
Dean
Faculty of Education
University of Malaya

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

PLEASE TICK (✓)/CIRCLE/DELETE OR FILL IN THE BLANKS WHERE APPROPRIATE

1. Name of respondent (optional):______________________________

2. Gender: Male ( ) Female ( )

3. Your Age Group:
   Below 30 ( )
   30 - 40 ( )
   40 - 50 ( )
   50 - 60 ( )
   over 60 ( )

4. Race: Bumiputra/Chinese/Indian/Other (*please state*)__________________

5. Highest Qualification: ________ University:__________ Country:________

6. Employed in: University: ______________________________
   Faculty: ______________________________
   Department:______________________________

7. Academic position: Professor/ Associate Professor/ Lecturer (*Please circle*)

8. University teaching experience: ______ years

9. Please tick (a) the position/s held currently or in the past
   and state (b) the length of time you held the position.

(a) POSITION		(b) LENGTH OF TIME
Deputy Vice-Chancellor or Acting...	( )	______Years
Dean/Director or Acting	( )	______Years
Head of Department or Acting.......	( )	______Years
Council Member or Acting...........	( )	______Years
Senate Member or Acting............	( )	______Years

Others (*please state position*) ______________________________

10. International Educational/Academic Experience:

Study Abroad? Yes/No. If yes, in which countries?____________________

Conducted research with foreign academicians? Yes/No (*please circle*)

Participated in international conferences/seminars? Yes/No (*please circle*)

Spent sabbatical abroad? Yes/No. If Yes, in which countries?____________

Other international academic experience:____________________________

____

Estimated total period of international academic experience: ______ years

11. Please indicate the percentage of time you spend on the following activites over the last five years?

ACTIVITES	**PERCENTAGE**	
Teaching	( )	
Research	( )	
Consultancy for government	( )	
Consultancy for business	( )	
Other Consultancy work	( )	eg:____________________
Public and community Service	( )	
Other activites (please state)	( )	eg:____________________
TOTAL:	100 %	

12. Please indicate the proportion of your research over the last 5 years according to the following types

TYPE	**PERCENTAGE**
Pure research (academic/theoretical)............................	( )%
Applied research (specifically to provide a practical solution)	( )%
Others: ____	( )%
TOTAL:	100 %

13. How important is it to you as an academic staff member to have control over what you wish to research and teach?

	RESEARCH	**TEACH**
(a) Very important	( )	( )
(b) Important	( )	( )
(c) Fairly important	( )	( )
(d) Not important at all	( )	( )

14. To what extent do you agree to the following statements?

PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING NUMBERS FOR YOUR ANSWERS:

1 = Disagree; 2 = Somewhat Disagree; 3 = Somewhat Agree; 4 = Agree

STATEMENT	EXTENT OF AGREEMENT			
(1) Academic work/research should be closely related to the national industrialization objective of Vision 2020?	1	2	3	4
(2) Universities should adopt a corporate approach eg. universities operating like an economic enterprise	1	2	3	4
(3) Universities should be actively involved in the private sector	1	2	3	4
(4) Government should be actively involved in university affairs	1	2	3	4

15. For each of the university outcome goals below, how **IMPORTANT**

(A) **IS** it emphasised by your university in the last 5 years

(B) **SHOULD** it ideally be emphasised.

PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING NUMBERS FOR YOUR ANSWERS:

1 = Not important; 2 = quite important; 3 = important; 4 = very important

UNIVERSITY OUTCOME GOALS	DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE				
1. *SOCIAL EQALITARIANISM:*					
(a) Provide educational experiences relevant to current women issues in Malaysia	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(b) Provide educational experiences relevant to the concerns of various ethnic groups	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(c) Help disadvantaged communities acquire knowledge and skills to improve conditions in their own communities	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
2. *SOCIAL CRITICISM/ACTIVISM*					
(a) Provide critical evaluation of prevailing practices and values in Malaysian society	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(b) Serve as a source of ideas for changing social institutions judged to be unjust or defective	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(c) Encourage students to take an active role in improving society	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
3. *VOCATIONAL PREPARATION*					
(a) Provide retraining opportunities for individuals to update their expertise	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(b) Develop educational programs geared to new and emerging career fields eg. hi-tech, counselling human resource development	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(c) Provide opportunities for students to prepare for professions eg. education, law, medicine, etc	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
4. *NATIONAL NEEDS*					
(a) Concentrate on meeting national manpower needs	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(b) Be responsive to national priorities (eg. as in Vision 2020)	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(c) Focus university resources on the solution of national problems eg. environmental and social problems (drug abuse, poverty)	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
5. *RESEARCH*					
(a) Perform research for business and industry	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(b) Conduct pure research for the advancement of knowledge	(A) **IS**	1	2	3	4
	(B) **SHOULD**	1	2	3	4

16 (contd) For each of the university outcome goals below, how **IMPORTANT**

(A) **IS** it emphasised by your university in the last 5 years

(B) **SHOULD** it ideally be emphasised.

PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING NUMBERS FOR YOUR ANSWERS:

1 = Not important; 2 = quite important; 3 = important; 4 = very important

UNIVERSITY OUTCOME GOALS	DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE				
(c) Perform research for government	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(b) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
6. HUMANISM/ALTRUISM					
(a) Encourage students to become more conscious of the important moral issues of our time	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(b) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
(b) Help students understand and respect people from diverse backgrounds and cultures	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(b) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
(c) Encourage students to become committed to world peace and more concerned about the welfare of mankind	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(b) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
7. CULTURAL/AESTHETIC AWARENESS					
(a) Provide cultural leadership and preserve cultural heritage	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(B) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
(b) Increase students' appreciation of various art forms and expressions, both local and foreign	(A) IS	1	2	3	4
	(B) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
(c) Provide opportunities for students to cultivate their aesthetic potentials	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(b) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
8. ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT					
(a) Help students acquire depth of knowledge in at least one academic discipline	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(b) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
(b) Ensure all students acquire a basic knowledge in the humanities and social sciences	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(b) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
(c) Prepare students for advanced academic work	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(b) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
9. INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION					
(a) Teach students methods of scholarly inquiry and research	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(b) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
(b) Increase the desire and ability of students to undertake self-directed learning	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(b) SHOULD	1	2	3	4
(c) Instill in students a life-long commitment to learning	(a) IS	1	2	3	4
	(b) SHOULD	1	2	3	4

16. For each of the following university process goals, how **IMPORTANT**

(A) **IS** it emphasised by your university in the last 5 years

(B) **SHOULD** it ideally be emphasised.

PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING NUMBERS FOR YOUR ANSWERS:

1 = Not important; 2 = quite important; 3 = important; 4 = very important

UNIVERSITY PROCESS GOALS	DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE					
(1) Ensure that students are not prevented from hearing speakers presenting controversial points of views	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(2) Place no restrictions on off-campus activities by lecturers and students	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(3) Protect the right of university lecturers to present controversial views in research and teaching	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(4) Decentralize decision-making on the campus to the greatest possible extent	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(5) Create a system of campus governance that is responsive to the concerns of all lecturers and students	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(6) Assure students and lecturers can be significantly involved or participate in campus governance	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(7) Maintain a campus climate in which communication is open and honest	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(8) Foster a campus climate of mutual trust and respect among students, lecturers and administrators	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(9) Maintain a climate in which lecturers' commitment to university goals is as strong as commitment to their own profession.	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(10) Apply cost criteria in deciding among alternative academic and non-academic programs	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(11) Regularly provide evidence that the university is achieving its stated goals	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(12) Be accountable to funding sources for the effectiveness of the university programs	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(13) Include agencies external to the university (example government, business) in planning university programs)	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(14) Obtain majority support among university staff about the goals of the institution	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4
(15) Achieve a large degree of institutional autonomy or independence in relation to governmental and private sector.	(a)	**IS**	1	2	3	4
	(b)	**SHOULD**	1	2	3	4

17. Do you think you as an academic staff member could influence what your university goals should be?

Yes / No (*please circle your answer*)

IF YES, briefly explain how you can influence your university goals.

____

____

____

____

IF NO, please give your reason.

____

____

____

____

18. How important do you think is the role of academic staff generally in Malaysia in determining the goals of university?

Very important	( )
Important	( )
Somewhat important	( )
Not Important at all	( )

19. Do you think that the role of academic staff in determining the goals of the university has become more or less effective over the last ten years?

More effective	( )
Less effective	( )
No Comments	( )

Please state the reason for your answer.

____

____

____

20. To what extent would you like to see the government being involved in determining the goals of the university?

To a Great extent	( )
To Some extent	( )
To a Small extent	( )
Not at all	( )

21. How actively do you participate in your faculty and department meetings?

Very Actively	( )
Actively	( )
Somewhat actively	( )
Not actively	( )

22. Is the present state of each of the following factors at your university hindering or facilitating the achievement of ideal university goals?

PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING NUMBERS FOR YOUR ANSWERS:

1: hindering; 2: somewhat hindering; 3: somewhat facilitating; 4: facilitating

FACTORS	**HINDERING**		**FACILITATING**	
Present funding availibility at your university	1	2	3	4
Present state of facilities at your university	1	2	3	4
Existing university administration	1	2	3	4
Existing policies and regulations	1	2	3	4
Prevailing academic culture at your university	1	2	3	4
Current university leadership style	1	2	3	4
Adoption of corporate approach in university management	1	2	3	4
Existing university relationship with the private sector	1	2	3	4
Existing university relationship with the government	1	2	3	4
Existing government higher education policy	1	2	3	4
Others (*please state*)	1	2	3	4

23. What action would you wish the government to take in order to facilitate the achievement of the ideal university goals? Please list THREE, starting with the most important.

(1) ____________________

(2) ____________________

(3) ____________________

24. What are some of the major current concerns and challenges you face as an academic staff?

____

____

____

____

25. What do you think are some of the major problems, issues and challenges facing universities in Malaysia in the 1990s?

____

____

____

____

24hb Januari, 1994

Tuan/Puan,

Soalselidik ini adalah sebahagian daripada kajian yang bertujuan memperolehi pandangan para kakitangan akademik UKM dan UM mengenai peranan universiti dalam pembangunan negara di Malaysia pada masa kini.

Pandangan-pandangan tuan/puan adalah penting bagi kejayaan kajian ini yang menyentuh cabaran semasa yang dihadapi oleh universiti-unuiversiti di Malaysia sebab negara kita sedang melaksanakan rancangan pembangunan baru berdasarkan wawasan 2020.

Saya berharap tuan/puan akan memberi jawapan dengan seiklas-iklasnya kerana saya memberi jaminan bahawa jawapan tuan/puan dirahsiakan dan digunakan semata-mata bagi tujuan kajian ini sahaja. Soalselidik ini adalah dalam dua versi - Bahasa Malaysia dan Bahasa Inggeris. Sila gunakan versi yang sesuai bagi tuan/puan.

Selain daripada soalselidik survey ini, satu temubual dengan para pensyarah yang sanggup berbincang mengenai tajuk kajian dengan lebih mendalam akan dijalakan juga. Sila nyatakan kesanggupan tuan/puan untuk ditemubual dalam borang di bawah, kemudian kembalikannya bersama dengan soalselidik yang telah diisi sebelum Februari 9, 1994.

Di atas kerjasama tuan/puan itu terlebih dahulu diucapkan terima kasih.

Yang Benar,

Puan Thong Lay Kim
Fakulti Pendidikan, Universiti Malaya. 59100 Kuala Lumpur.
Tel: 757-2433; Fax: 756-5506

SILA KEMBALIKAN BORANG INI DENGAN SOALSELIDIK YANG TELAH DI ISI.

Saya sanggup ditemubual untuk berbincang dengan lebih mendalam mengenai tajuk kajian.

Nama: ____

Jabatan: ____

Fakulti: ________________________ UKM / UM (Sila potong yang tidak berkenaan)

Nombor Telefon saya: __________________ Tandatangan: ....

FAKULTI PENDIDIKAN
UNIVERSITI MALAYA
59100 KUALA LUMPUR

Tel: 037572433
Fax: 7565506
Telex: MA 39845

Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, 59100 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

328

24hb Januari, 1994

Professor/ Prof. Madya/ Pensyarah/ Rakan yang dihormati,

Per: Soalselidik Peranan Universiti

Dengan hormatnya dimaklumkan bahawa Puan Thong Lay Kim ialah seorang pensyarah di Fakulti Pendidikan, Universiti Malaya. Beliau sedang menjalankan satu kajian tentang peranan universiti dalam pembangunan kebangsaan di Malaysia, dan memerlukan pandangan Professor/ Prof. Madya/ Pensyarah/Rakan terhadap topic semasa ini. Memandangkan masa sekarang negara kita melaksanakan rancangan-rancangan pembangunan yang bertujuan untuk menjadikan Malaysia sebuah negara maju dan berindustri, maka universiti-universiti perlu memikirkan semula peranannya. Oleh itu, kajian ini adalah pada masa dan amat bersabit. Dapatan-dapatan kajian ini akan memanfaatkan negara kita dan juga berguna kepada semua pihak yang berkaitan dengan pendidikan di Malaysia. Saya berharap Professor/Prof. Madya/Pensyarah/Rakan akan memberi Puan Thong kerjasama dan pertolongan yang beliau perlukan untuk mengutip data-data bagi kajian ini.

Sekian, terima kasih.

Yang Benar,

Dato' Mohd Yunus Mohd Noor
Dekan
Fakulti Pendidikan
Universiti Malaya

SOALSELIDIK SURVEY

SILA BUBUH TANDA (/)/BULATKAN/POTONG/ISI TEMPAT YANG MANA DIPERLU

1. **Nama Responden (optional):**____

2. **Jantina: Lelaki ( ) Perempuan ( )**

3. **Umur:**
   - Bawah 30 ( )
   - 30 - 40 ( )
   - 40 - 50 ( )
   - 50 - 60 ( )
   - Lebih 60 ( )

4. **Bangsa: Bumiputra/Cina/India/Lain-lain (*sila nyatakan*)**____________________

5. **Kelayakan Tertinggi:** ______ **Universiti:**_____________ **Negeri:**______________

6. **Bekerja di: Universiti** ____

   Fakulti:____

   Jabatan:____

7. **Jawatan akademik: Prof./Prof. Madya/Pensyarah (*sila bulatkan*)**

8. **Pengalaman mengajar di Universiti:** ____________**tahun**

9. **Sila tandakan (a) jawatan pentadbiran yang disandang sekarang atau dulu dan nyatakan (b) tempoh masa menyandang jawatan itu**

(a) JAWATAN PENTADBIRAN		**(b) TEMPOH**
Timbalan Naib Canselor/Pemangku	( )	________**tahun**
Dekan/Pengarah atau Pemangku	( )	________**tahun**
Ketua Jabatan atau Pemangku	( )	________**tahun**
Ahli Majlis atau Pemangku	( )	________**tahun**
Ahli Senat atau Pemangku	( )	________**tahun**

Lain-lain (*Sila nyatakan jawatan*)________________________________

10. **Pengalaman Akademik Antarabangsa: *SILA TANDAKAN/BULATKAN/POTONG ATAU ISI TEMPAT KOSONG DI MANA YANG SESUAI***

    Pernah belajar di luar negeri? Ya/tidak. Jika Ya, dimana?____________________

    Pernah menjalankan penyelidikan dengan ahli akademik luar negeri? Ya/tidak

    Pernah menyertai persidangan/seminar antarabangsa? Ya/tidak

    Pernah menjalankan cuti sabatikal di luar negeri? Ya/tidak.

    Jika Ya, di mana?____

    Pengalaman akademik antarabangsa yang lain:____________________________

    Anggaran bagi tempoh pengalaman akademik antarabangsa:__________**tahun**

11. Sila nyatakan peratusan masa yang telah guna untuk aktiviti-aktiviti berikut dalam tempoh 5 tahun yang lalu?

AKTIVITI-AKTIVITI	**PERATUSAN**	
Pengajaran	( )	
Penyelidikan	( )	
Khidmat runding bagi pihak kerajaan	( )	
Khidmat runding bagi pihak swasta	( )	
Lain-lain khidmat runding	( )	Contoh:____________________
Khidmat awam dan komuniti	( )	
Lain-lain aktiviti (*sila nyatakan*)	( )	Contoh:____________________
JUMLAH	100%	

12. Sila nyatakan peratusan untuk jenis penyelidikan berikut dalam tempoh 5 tahun yang lalu.

JENIS	**PERATUSAN**
Penyelidikan tulen (akademik/teoritis).......................	( )%
Penyelidikan gunaan (khas untuk penyelesaian praktikal)......	( )%
Lain-lain : ______________________________	( )%
JUMLAH :	100%

13. Sejauh manakah pentingnya kepada anda sebagai ahli akademik untuk mempunyai kebebasan ke atas apa yang anda ajar dan selidik?

	SELIDIK	**AJAR**
a) Sangat penting	( )	( )
b) Penting	( )	( )
c) Agak penting	( )	( )
d) Tidak penting sama sekali	( )	( )

14. Sejauh manakah anda bersetuju dengan pernyataan-pernyataan di bawah ?

SILA GUNAKAN NOMBOR BERIKUT UNTUK JAWAPAN ANDA:

1 = Tidak bersetuju; 2 = Agak tidak bersetuju; 3 = Agak bersetuju; 4 = Bersetuju

PERNYATAAN	**KADAR PERSETUJUAN**			
(1) Kerja/penyelidikan akademik harus berhubung rapat dengan objektif perindustrian negara dalam Wawasan 2020	1	2	3	4
(2) Universiti perlu menggunakan pendekatan koperat, contohnya universiti berfungsi sebagai satu usaha ekonomi	1	2	3	4
(3) Universiti perlu melibatkan diri secara aktif dalam sektor swasta	1	2	3	4
(4) Kerajaan perlu melibatkan diri secara aktif dalam hal ehwal universiti	1	2	3	4

15. Untuk setiap **MATLAMAT UNIVERSITI** di bawah, nyatakan kadar **PENTINGNYA**

(A) matlamat **DITEKANKAN** oleh universiti anda dalam masa 5 tahun yang lepas.

(B) secara ideal, matlamat **PATUT DI TEKANKAN.**

SILA GUNAKAN ANGKA-ANGKA BERIKUT UNTUK JAWAPAN ANDA:

1 = Tidak penting; 2 = Agak penting; 3 = Penting; 4 = Sangat penting

MATLAMAT HASIL (OUTCOME GOALS)	KADAR KEPENTINGAN				
1. KESAKSAMAAN SOSIAL					
a) memberi pengalaman pendidikan yang bersabit dengan isu wanita di Malaysia	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
b) mengadakan pengalaman pendidikan yang bersabit dengan kepentingan pelbagai kumpulan etnik	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
c) Membantu komuniti tak beruntung (disadvantaged) memperolehi pengetahuan dan kemahiran untuk memperbaiki keadaan kehidupan mereka	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
2. KRITIKAN SOSIAL					
a) Mengadakan penilaian kritis tentang amalan-amalan dan nilai-nilai masyarakat Malaysia semasa	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
b) Berfungsi sebagai sumber idea untuk menukar institusi sosial yang tidak dianggap tidak adil atau cacat	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
c) Menggalakkan pelajar mengambil peranan aktif untuk memajukan masyarakat	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
3. PERSEDIAAN VOKASIONAL					
a) Memberi peluang latihan semula bagi individu untuk mengemaskinikan kepakaran mereka.	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
b) Memperkembang program pendidikan berkaitan dengan bidang kerjaya yang baru contoh hi-tek, kaunseling,pembangungn sumber manusia.	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
c) Mengadakan peluang-peluang untuk pelajar mendapat persediaan bagi profesyen contoh undang-undang, perubatan dll.	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
4. KEPERLUAN NEGARA					
a) Menumpu perhatian untuk memenuhi keperluan tenaga manusia	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
b) Betindak balas terhadap keutamaan negara (contoh seperti bagi wawasan 2020	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
c) Menumpukan sumber-sumber universiti kepada penyelesaian masalah negara cth. masalah persekitaran & masalah sosial (dadah, kemiskinan)	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
5. PENYELIDIKAN					
a) Menjalankan penyelidikan untuk perniagaan dan perindustrian	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4

15(samb) Untuk setiap **MATLAMAT UNIVERSITI** di bawah, nyatakan kadar **PENTINGNYA**

(A) matlamat **DITEKANKAN** oleh universiti anda dalam masa 5 tahun yang lepas.

(B) secara ideal, matlamat **PATUT DI TEKANKAN**.

SILA GUNAKAN ANGKA-ANGKA BERIKUT UNTUK JAWAPAN ANDA:
1 = Tidak penting; 2 = Agak penting; 3 = Penting; 4 = Sangat penting

MATLAMAT HASIL (OUTCOME GOALS)	**KADAR KEPENTINGAN**				
b) Menjalankan penyelidikan tulen untuk menyumbang kepada perkembangan pengetahuan	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
c) Menjalankan penyelidikan untuk kerajaan	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
6. KEPERIMANUSIAAN /ALTRUISME					
a) Menggalakkan pelajar-pelajar supaya lebih menyedari tentang isu-isu moral penting pada masa kini	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
b) Membantu pelajar-pelajar supaya mereka memahami dan menghormati orang dari berbagai latarbelakang dan kebudayaan	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
c) Menggalakkan pelajar-pelajar supaya mereka komited kepada keamanan dunia dan mengambil berat tentang kebajikan manusia	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
7. KESEDARAN ESTETIK ATAU KEBUDAYAAN					
a) Memberi kepimpinan budaya dan memelihara warisan budaya	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
b) Meningkatkan penikmatan pelajar terhadap pelbagai bentuk dan ekspresi baik seni tempatan ataupun asing.	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
c) Menyediakan peluang untuk pelajar memupuk potensi estetik mereka	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
8. PERKEMBANGAN AKADEMIK					
a) Membantu pelajar memperolehi pengetahuan yang mendalam dalam sekurang-kurangnya satu disiplin akademik	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
b) Memastikan pelajar memperolehi pengetahuan asas dalam bidang kemanusiaan dan sains sosial	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
C) Menyediakan pelajar untuk kerja akademik lanjutan	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
9. ORIENTASI INTELEK					
a) Mengajar pelajar-pelajar kaedah penyiasatan dan penyelidikan yang saintifik	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
b) Menambah keinginan dan kebolehan pelajar untuk menjalankan pembelajaran secara sendiri	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
C) Menanam di kalangan pelajar komitmen seumur hidup terhadap pembelajaran	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4

16. Untuk setiap MATLAMAT UNIVERSITI di bawah, nyatakan kadar PENTINGNYA

(A) matlamat **DITEKANKAN** oleh universiti anda dalam masa 5 tahun yang lepas.

(B) secara ideal, matlamat **PATUT DI TEKANKAN**.

SILA GUNAKAN ANGKA-ANGKA BERIKUT UNTUK JAWAPAN ANDA:

1 = Tidak penting; 2 = Agak penting; 3 = Penting; 4 = Sangat penting

MATLAMAT PROSES (PROCESS GOALS)	KADAR KEPENTINGAN				
1) Memastikan pelajar tidak dihalang daripada mendengar penceramah memberi pendapat-pendapat kontroversi	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
2) Tidak menyekat pensyarah dan pelajar daripada melibatkan diri dalam aktiviti luar kampus	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
3) Melindungi hak pensyarah universiti untuk menyampaikan pendapat kontroversi dalam penyelidikan dan pengajaran	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
4) Mengagihkan kuasa membuat keputusan di kampus sekadar yang mungkin	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
5) Mencipta satu sistem pentadbiran kampus yang peka kepada kepentingan pensyarah dan pelajar	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
6) Memastikan pensyarah dan pelajar dapat melibatkan diri secara giat dalam pentadbiran kampus	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
7) Mengekalkan iklim kampus yang mempunyai komunikasi yang terbuka dan jujur	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
8) Memupuk iklim kampus yang bercirikan saling percaya dan saling hormat di kalangan pelajar, pensyarah dan pentadbir	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
9) Mengekalkan iklim di mana komitmen pensyarah kepada matlamat universiti adalah sekukuh komitmen kepada profesion mereka	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
10) Menggunakan kriteria kos untuk menentukan program akademik dan program bukan-akademik yang lain	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
11) Sentiasa memberi bukti bahawa universiti telah mencapai matlamat seperti yang ditetapkan	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
12) Bertanggungjawab kepada sumber kewangan (funding) terhadap keberkesanan program universiti	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
13) Melibatkan agensi luaran (contoh: kerajaan, sektor bisnes) dalam perancangan program universiti	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
14) Mendapat sokongan majoriti di kalangan kakitangan universiti tentang matlamat universiti	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
15) Mencapai satu kadar besar autonomi institusi atau kebebasan berkaitan dengan sektor kerajaan dan swasta	(A) DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4
	(B) PATUT DITEKANKAN	1	2	3	4

17. Adakah anda berpendapat bahawa sebagai ahli akademik anda boleh mempengaruhi matlamat universiti anda?

Ya/Tidak (*sila bulatkan jawapan*)

Jika ya, terangkan secara ringkas bagaimana anda boleh mempengaruhi matlamat univesiti.

Jika tidak, sila berikan sebab-sebabnya.

18. Pada pendapat anda sejauh manakah pentingnya peranan ahli akademik amnya di Malaysia dalam menentukan matlamat universiti?

a) Sangat penting ( )
b) Penting ( )
c) Agak penting ( )
d) Tidak penting sama sekali ( )

19. Pada pendapat anda adakah peranan ahli akademik dalam menentukan matlamat universiti telah menjadi lebih atau kurang berkesan dalam 10 tahun yang lepas

a) Lebih berkesan ( )
b) kurang berkesan ( )
c) Tiada komen ( )

Sila berikan sebab-sebab untuk jawapan anda.

20. Setakat mana anda ingin melihat kerajaan melibatkan diri dalam menentukan matlamat universiti?

a) Banyak terlibat ( )
b) Satu kadar tertentu ( )
c) Sedikit terlibat ( )
d) Tiada langsung ( )

21. Sejauh manakah anda aktif dalam penglibatan mesyuarat fakulti dan jabatan?

a) Sangat aktif ( )
b) Aktif ( )
c) Agak aktif ( )
d) Tidak aktif ( )

22. Untuk setiap faktor di bawah yang wujud di universiti anda, adakah ia menghalang atau membantu pencapaian matlamat universiti yang ideal.

SILA GUNAKAN ANGKA-ANGKA BERIKUT UNTUK JAWAPAN ANDA:

1 = tetap menghalang; 2 = agak menghalang; 3 = agak membantu; 4 = tetap membantu

FAKTOR-FAKTOR	MENGHALANG		MEMBANTU	
Kebolehdapatan pembiayaan (funding) masa ini di universiti anda	1	2	3	4
Keadaan kemudahan masa ini di universiti anda	1	2	3	4
Pentadbiran universiti masa ini	1	2	3	4
Polisi dan peraturan universiti masa ini	1	2	3	4
Kebudayaan akademik masa ini di universiti anda	1	2	3	4
Gaya kepimpinan universiti masa ini	1	2	3	4
Pengamalan pendekatan koperat dalam pengurusan universiti	1	2	3	4
Perhubungan di antara universiti dengan sektor swasta masa sekarang	1	2	3	4
Perhubungan di antara universiti dengan kerajaan masa sekarang	1	2	3	4
Polisi kerajaan sekarang mengenai pendidikan tinggi	1	2	3	4
Lain-lain faktor (sila nyatakan)	1	2	3	4

23. Apakah tindakan yang anda ingin kerajaan ambil untuk membantu pencapaian matlamat universiti yang ideal? *Sila senaraikan TIGA tindakan mengikut keutamaan.*

(1)____________________

(2)____________________

(3)____________________

24. Sebagai seorang ahli akademik, apakah masalah dan cabaran utama yang anda hadapi?

25. Pada pendapat anda apakah masalah, isu dan cabaran utama yang dihadapi oleh universiti di Malaysia pada tahun 1990an?

APPENDIX F

PROFILE OF INTERVIEWEES BY UNIVERSITY

FACULTIES	UM	UKM
Science Faculties	7	8
Arts Faculties	6	5
TOTAL	13	13

KEY:

Science Faculties in UM: Medicine
Science
Engineering
Dentisry

UKM: Medicine
Physical and Applied Sciences
Life Sciences
Mathematical & Computer Sciences

Arts Faculties in UM: Arts and Social Sciences
Economics and Administration
Education
Law

UKM: Social Sciences and Humanities
Economics and Business Management
Education
Law

APPENDIX G

PROFILE OF POPULATION AND SURVEY RESPONDENTS

TABLE G1

POPULATION SIZE AND RESPONDENTS BY UNIVERSITY
(ROW PERCENTAGES)

	TOTAL		UM		UKM	
	COUNT	PERCENT	COUNT	PERCENT	COUNT	PERCENT
POPULATION	1846	100.0%	980	53.1%	866	46.9%
RESPONDENTS	159	100.0%	85	53.5%	74	46.5%

TABLE G2

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS BY UNIVERSITY

(COLUMN PERCENTAGES)

	TOTAL		UM		UKM	
	COUNT	PERCENT	COUNT	PERCENT	COUNT	PERCENT
POPULATION	1846	100.0%	980	100.0%	866	100.0%
RESPONDENTS	159	8.6%	85	8.7%	74	8.5%

TABLE G3

PROFILE OF POPULATION AND RESPONDENTS

DESCRIPTION OF ACADEMICS	TOTAL POPULATION	TOTAL RESPONDENTS
Science Faculties	58.1%	59.0%
N	(1073)	(92)
Arts Faculties	41.9%	41.0%
N	(733)	(64)
Male Academics	67.7%	74.2%
N	(1247)	(115)
Female Academics	32.3%	25.8%
N	(597)	(40)
Bumiputra Academics	67.8%	64.3%
N	(1249)	(101)
Chinese Academics	18.7%	19.1%
N	(346)	(30)
Indian Academics	7.7%	10.2%
N	(142)	(16)
Other Race	5.8%	6.4%
N	(107)	(10)
Professor	9.6%	27.6%
N	(177)	(43)
Associate Professor	30.4%	34.0%
N	(562)	(53)
Lecturer	60.0%	38.4%
N	(1107)	(60)

TABLE G4

PROFILE OF POPULATION AND RESPONDENTS BY UNIVERSITY

DESCRIPTION OF ACADEMICS	UM POP	UM RESP	UKM POP	UKM RESP
Science Faculties	62.6%	50.6%	53.0%	68.5%
N	(614)	(42)	(459)	(50)
Arts Faculties	37.4%	49.4%	47.0%	31.5%
N	(366)	(41)	(407)	(23)
Male Academics	63.6%	68.7%	72.3%	80.6%
N	(623)	(57)	(626)	(58)
Female Academics	36.4%	31.3%	27.7%	19.4%
N	(357)	(26)	(240)	(14)
Bumiputra Academics	49.8%	45.9%	88.1%	86.1%
N	(488)	(39)	(763)	(62)
Chinese Academics	30.5%	29.4%	5.4%	6.9%
N	(299)	(25)	(47)	(5)
Indian Academics	12.0%	17.6%	2.8%	1.4%
N	(118)	(15)	(24)	(1)
Other Race	7.7%	7.1%	3.7%	5.6%
N	(75)	(6)	(32)	(4)
Professor	11.8%	29.4%	7.0%	25.4%
N	(116)	(25)	(61)	(18)
Associate Professor	31.8%	36.5%	28.9%	31.0%
N	(312)	(31)	(250)	(22)
Lecturer	56.4%	34.1%	64.1%	43.6%
N	(552)	(29)	(555)	(31)

KEY: POP : Population
RESP : Respondents
UM : Universiti Malaya
UKM : Universiti Kebangsaan Malaya

APPENDIX H

ANALYSIS OF UNIVERSITY GOAL PERCEPTIONS BY ARTS- AND SCIENCE-RELATED FACULTIES

TABLE H1

t-TEST COMPARISON OF RATINGS OF CURRENT GOALS BY ARTS- AND SCIENCE-RELATED FACULTIES

GOALS	ARTS		SCIENCE		
	MEAN SCORE	SD	MEAN SCORE	SD	t-VALUE
OUTCOME GOALS:					
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	2.283	0.81	2.218	0.76	.48
SOCIAL CRITICISM	2.468	0.92	2.375	0.79	.61
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	2.557	0.77	2.731	0.74	-1.34
NATIONAL NEEDS	2.677	0.78	2.755	0.69	-0.62
RESEARCH	2.619	0.65	2.472	0.62	1.35
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	2.377	0.83	2.377	0.88	0.0
CULTURAL AWARENESS	2.184	0.83	2.169	0.76	0.11
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	2.677	0.74	2.500	0.68	1.48
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	2.339	0.92	2.486	0.89	-0.97
PROCESS GOALS:					
FREEDOM	2.220	0.82	2.214	0.83	0.05
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	2.050	0.87	2.040	0.79	0.07
CLIMATE	2.145	0.94	2.201	0.93	-0.36
ACCOUNTABILITY	2.350	0.67	2.438	0.73	-0.73
AUTONOMY	2.184	0.79	2.263	0.82	-0.58

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

TABLE H2

t-TEST COMPARISON OF RATINGS OF PREFERRED GOALS BY ARTS- AND SCIENCE-RELATED FACULTIES

GOALS	ARTS		SCIENCE		
	MEAN SCORE	SD	MEAN SCORE	SD	t-VALUE
OUTCOME GOALS:					
SOCIAL EGALITARIANISM	3.081	0.56	2.912	0.68	1.66
SOCIAL CRITICISM	3.494	0.56	3.550	0.46	-0.62
VOCATIONAL PREPARATION	3.568	0.48	3.506	0.57	0.71
NATIONAL NEEDS	3.402	0.57	3.400	0.52	0.24
RESEARCH	3.244	0.52	3.087	0.55	1.74
HUMANISM/ALTRUISM	3.589	0.53	3.592	0.48	-0.04
CULTURAL AWARENESS	3.269	0.57	3.101	0.77	1.54
ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT	3.448	0.51	3.357	0.56	1.03
INTELLECTUAL ORIENTATION	3.710	0.46	3.736	0.41	-0.36
PROCESS GOALS:					
FREEDOM	3.429	0.54	3.372	0.62	0.59
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE	3.545	0.50	3.484	0.52	0.74
CLIMATE	3.780	0.39	3.685	0.47	1.35
ACCOUNTABILITY	3.287	0.62	3.212	0.56	0.75
AUTONOMY	3.299	0.59	3.283	0.61	0.16

KEY: Degree of importance as indicated by mean scores:
Mean score of 1 = not important
Mean score of 2 = fairly important
Mean score of 3 = important
Mean score of 4 = very important

* Significant at $p < 0.05$